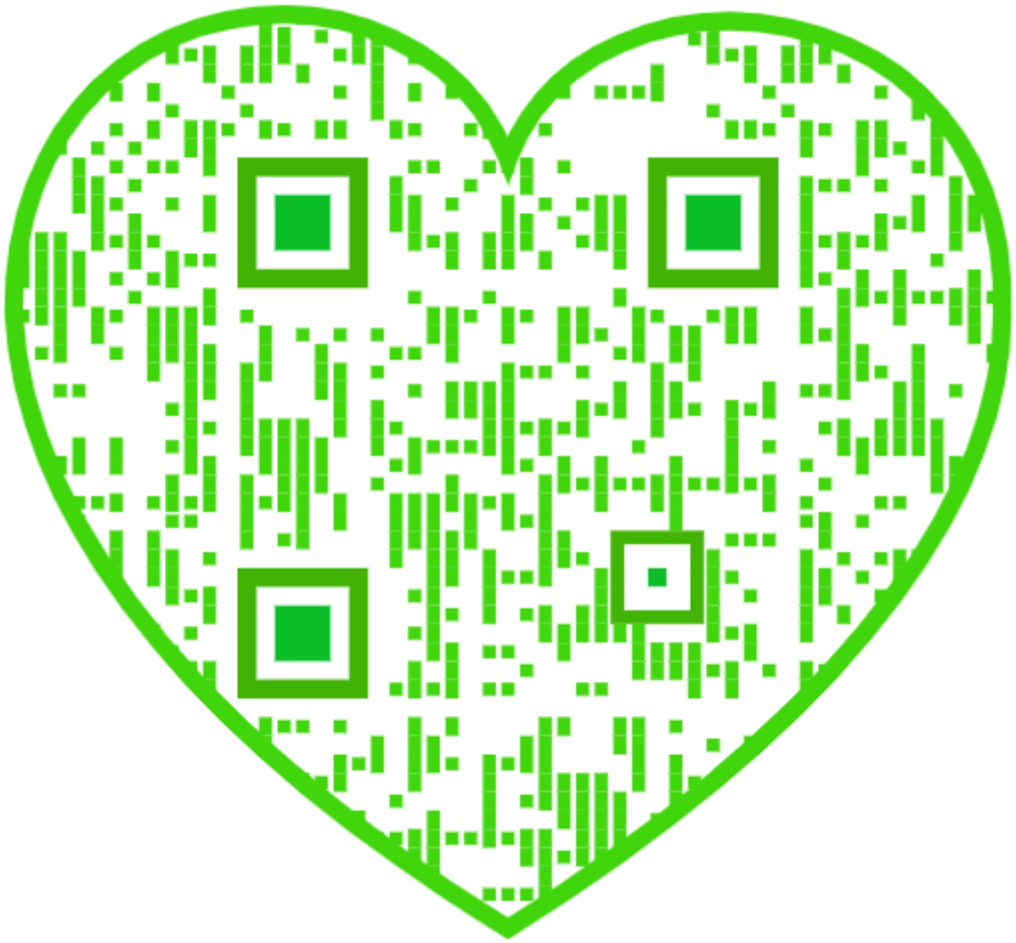
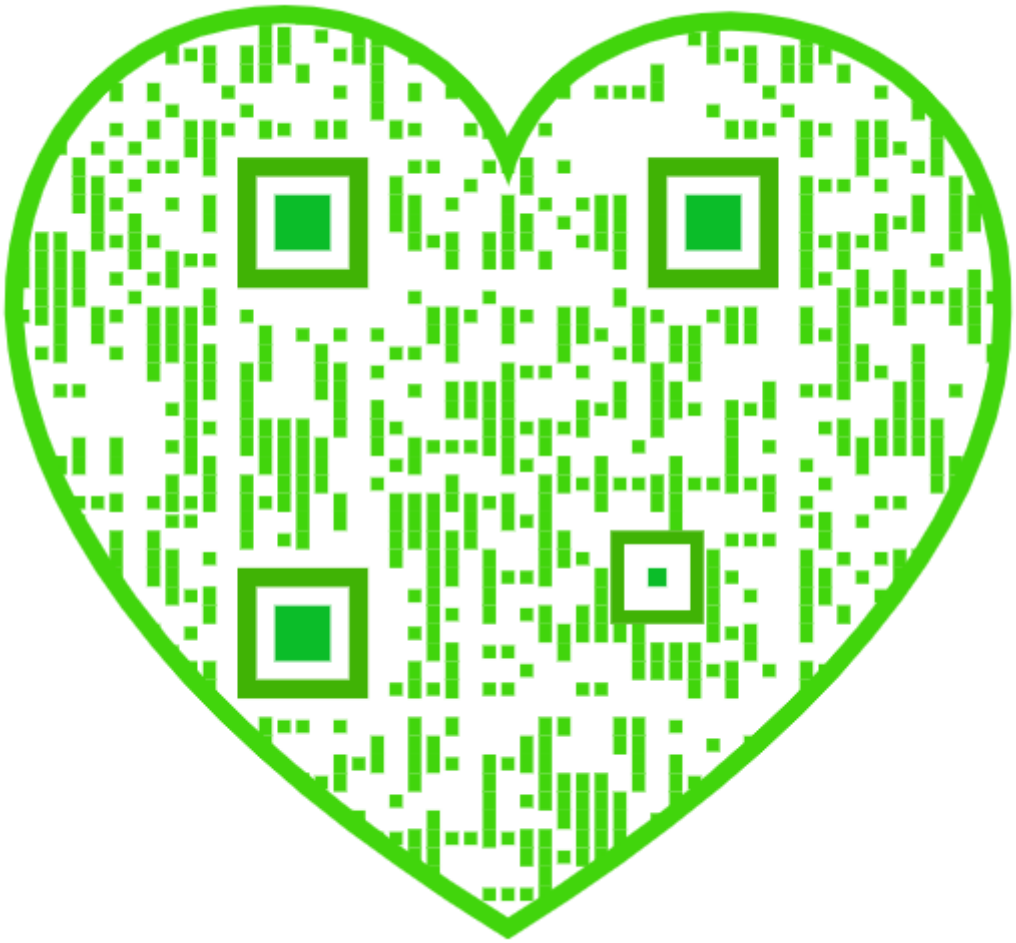
TOPICAL DISCUSSION OF AMERICAN HISTORY

TEACHERS' MANUAL AND COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY AND CIVICS

W. C. DOUB





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TOPICAL DISCUSSION OF AMERICAN HISTORY

CONSTITUTING A TEACHERS' MANUAL AND COURSE OF STUDY IN HISTORY AND CIVICS FOR USE IN

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

BY

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PREFACE

This little volume is a working manual for the teacher and constitutes a course in history and civics for the elementary schools. Many able educators have been consulted in the preparation of this course, and it is believed to be so complete in every detail that boards of education can adopt it as the course in history and civics without further reference to these subjects in the school manual or regular course of study. This course has been prepared with especial reference to the regular text-books. Teachers and pupils frequently complain that the regular or official text on history is too difficult, and it is hoped that this course will be of great assistance to them in the use of this text. The discussions, references and questions in this volume are intended for the direct help and assistance of the teacher, the object being to reduce the teacher's work to a minimum and to provide at the same time a broad and progressive course in history and civics. In order to further assist the teacher, a pupil's outline for use in connection with this course of study has been prepared and is bound under a separate cover. Special attention is directed to "Questions for Class Recitations" and "Questions for Compositions and Examinations," which follow each general topic or chapter in the work for the seventh and eighth grades.

A few years ago it would have been necessary to have accompanied this little volume with an explanatory word regarding the nature of the work for which it provides. Happily, that time is now passed, for nearly all the better teachers and schools in the United States are now doing the work for which the course of study herein outlined makes specific provision. The combining of the work in civics with that on history is one of the most valuable features of this course, and a feature which has been thoroughly tested in the schools of the East with most satisfactory results.

WILLIAM C. DOUB

SAN FRANCISCO, April 6, 1904

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BOOKS

I BOOKS FOR PUPILS

The books listed below should be placed in the hands of pupils at the time indicated. Thomas's Elementary History of the United States and Channing's First Lessons in United States History are to be used in the sixth grade as provided for further over in this manual. The regular text is to be used in both the seventh and eighth grades, and the Pupil's Outline in American History is to be used by the pupils in the fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades.

ELEMENTARY WORK

1. *Fifth Grade*
   (a) Doub—Pupil's Outline in American History
   (b) Any Good Local State History
   (c) Blaisdell—Stories from English History, or
   (d) Warren—Stories from English History
2. *Sixth Grade*
   (a) Thomas—Elementary History of the United States
   (b) Channing—First Lessons in United States History

ADVANCED WORK

1. *Seventh Grade*
   (a) The Regular or Official Text-Book on American History
   (b) Hart—Source Reader of American History, No. 1
   (c) Hart—Source Reader of American History, No. 2
2. *Eighth Grade*
   (a) The Regular or Official Text-Book on American History
   (b) Hart—Source Reader of American History, No. 3
   (c) Hart—Source Reader of American History, No. 4

The books listed above may be purchased by the pupil or with library, district and county funds. All these books will be of distinct value to the pupil in his school work, and most parents, therefore, will desire that their children own them. Hart's Source Readers are of especial value and are most interesting. In speaking of these books in the November number of the *Western Journal of Education,* Prof. Moore of the University of California said: "'These books are made up of sources, but not of sources in the garb of three centuries ago, unfamiliar to modern children. The language and spelling have been freely altered, while the thought has been preserved. Much has been omitted, but it has not been the intention to add any statement not expressed in the original. If children are interested in these books, it will be because their ancestors were interesting, and not because a modern mind has invented a story for them.' These statements from the preface will indicate quite clearly the plan of this series of readers. That plan has been carried out almost to perfection. It would be difficult in all the range of children's books to find anything so nearly ideal. What may with truth be called the Iliad of our nation is here put into suitable form for use in the schools. Will children care for them? Of course they will, for they tell of the heroic age more dramatically, as the real is more dramatic than the imaginary, than any tale written for them could. Indeed, we are persuaded that no such piece of good fortune has happened to the youth of this land for a long time as the preparation of this series. Three or four worthy objects are attained in it. It places good literature in the hands of children. It lays a broad foundation for future study of history. It imparts a rich and varied knowledge of the life of the pioneers. It puts reading upon a natural basis. And the superiority of the matter offered almost guarantees successful expression. The first volume, entitled 'Colonial Children,' tells the story of the discovery of America, of the Indians and of the life of the colonists. The second volume is entitled 'Camps and Firesides of the Revolution.' The third, 'How

Our Grandfathers Lived.' The fourth contains the 'Romance of the Civil War.' "

The Pupil's Outline in American History which has been prepared for use in connection with this Manual, contains exactly the same topics and the same references as are given in this manual for the work of the fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades. The Pupil's Outline contains, however, simply the topics, references and questions, all the discussions contained in this manual being omitted, so as to prevent the pupils from memorizing the same. This systematic arrangement of topics is almost as valuable as the references themselves, because it gives the pupil a connected idea of the nation's history by indicating plainly the relation of events.

II BOOKS FOR GENERAL READING AND REFERENCE FOR THE ELEMENTARY WORK

1. *Fifth and Sixth Grades*

(a) Books and Material of an Elementary Nature on Local State History

(b) Books and Material of an Elementary Nature on the History of the United States

III BOOKS AND MATERIAL FOR READING AND REFERENCE IN CONNECTION WITH THE ADVANCE WORK

Elson's Side Lights on American History in two small volumes should be in every library. They are very valuable and very interesting. Specific references are given to McMaster, Thomas and Montgomery throughout all the advanced work, and to Fiske until the adoption of the Federal Constitution. There should be enough copies of these books in the library for reading and ready reference. In consulting other books the pupil should be instructed to refer to the indexes.

IV BOOKS FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS

(a) Doub—Topical Discussion of American History; Teachers' Manual and Course of Study in History and Civics

(b) Channing—Student's History of the United States
(c) Lodge—A Short History of the English Colonies in America
(d) Ashley—American Government

A copy of each of these four books should be on the teacher's desk and should be purchased with school funds. It may not be out of place at this point to call attention to the fact that a large amount of school money is frequently wasted. A large per cent of the books and material in many district libraries is almost useless from the standpoint of school work or desirable general reading. It would be an excellent thing if boards of education would restrict the library list absolutely to a small and well selected list of books all of which have a direct and important relation to the course of study. The board and superintendent should then insist that the library money be used exclusively to purchase the books and material which they have selected. The proper use of the library money along these lines would soon result in securing a library that would be of great value to the pupil in connection with his school work and general reading. Sometimes the best interests of the school are subserved by using a small amount of the district and county funds for the purchase of books.

V ABBREVIATIONS USED IN CITING REFERENCES

Elementary Work

T. Thomas's Elementary History of the United States
C. Channing's First Lessons in United States History
Sx. Sexton's Stories of California
Wa. Wagner's Pacific History Stories
B. Blaisdell's Stories from English History
W. Warren's Stories from English History

Advanced Work

H. I Hart's Source Reader in American History, No. 1
H. II Hart's Source Reader in American History, No. 2

H. III Hart's Source Reader in American History, No. 3
H. IV Hart's Source Reader in American History, No. 4
Mc. McMaster's School History of the United States
T. Thomas's History of the United States
M. Montgomery's Leading Facts in American History
F. Fiske's History of the United States

MINIMUM AMOUNT OF WORK

The work outlined for the third, fourth, fifth and sixth grades has been so arranged as to correlate closely with the work on the other subjects. The work in these lower grades, therefore, will require but very little extra time on the part of either teacher or pupil. Some schools, however, may not desire to do this work. This manual has been so arranged that the work of the seventh and eighth years is independent of that in the lower grades in so far as any direct relation is concerned. If a board of education desires, therefore, it may omit any or all of the work outlined for the lower grades and adopt only that prepared for the seventh and eighth years. In addition to omitting the work of the lower grades some superintendents and boards of education may not desire to require all the references cited on the topics of the seventh and eighth years. This omission may easily be made by stating the minimum number of references required. The minimum should not be less than the regular text and Hart's Source Readers. If a board wishes to adopt only a part of the work of the lower grades, it is recommended that the work on the local history of the state be retained.

HISTORY AND CIVICS IN THE LOWER GRADES

The object of the work in history and civics in the lower grades is to prepare the pupil for the formal study of these subjects in the seventh and eighth grades, and to give those pupils who must leave school before they reach the more advanced grammar grades, some knowledge of American history. The plan as outlined below makes most of this work a part of the work on other subjects. As arranged, the elementary work on history and civics constitutes much of the language work and provides much excellent material for the pupil's general reading. This correlation economizes the time of the teacher and pupil and tends to prevent an over-crowding of the course of study. The arrangement of this work as given below is an attempt to provide a definite and workable outline for the use of teachers, and one that will result in giving the pupil a good preparation for the formal study of history and civics in the last two grades of the grammar school.

THIRD YEAR WORK

All the work here outlined for the third grade is to be presented orally by the teacher. After the teacher has presented the topic of the month in story form, different pupils should be required to stand and re-tell the story. Either before or after this oral re-telling of the story by different members of the class, a pupil should be required to pass to the blackboard and write the story as the class reconstructs it. This constitutes the best possible work on language, and usually secures the active interest and co-operation of every pupil. Under the sympathetic guidance of the teacher, each pupil, by actual practice, is learning how to use capitals and the simpler marks of punctuation; he is learning something about the use and selection of words, and about paragraphing and other principles of language construction. As the pupils reconstruct the story for the pupil at the board, they should be led by the teacher to discuss and to apply these simpler principles of constructive grammar, and to learn new ones as the complexity of their language requires their use. After the different pupils have retold the story orally and after the class has reconstructed it on the board as indicated above, each pupil should be

required to reproduce it in the form of a composition, and nothing but his best work should be accepted by the teacher. From the standpoint of language, the work on one history story is of much more value to the pupil than would be a dozen lessons like those contained in the average language book. This work on the history stories, together with similar work on literature stories, and on original compositions on other subjects, should constitute nearly all the language work in the first six grades of the elementary schools and a large part of that work in the seventh and eighth grades. The work on the history stories, therefore, is to be made a part of the language work.

In presenting the history work of each month, the teacher should weave it into story form and make it just as interesting as possible. It should always be borne in mind, however, that the stories or talks of the teacher on each topic should be true to historical fact. The talk on the topic of the first month, Government in the Home, and on the topic of the second month Government in the School, should impress on the pupil the necessity and object of government. It may be rather difficult to present these two topics in story form, but the work on Civics should begin with the child's personal environment. In the fourth grade the work on Civics deals with city, county and district government and in the fifth grade with state government. The work on Civics in these three grades should give the pupil a general idea of local and state government and prepare him for the more formal study of government in the seventh and eighth grades. The other topics of this grade can be presented easily in story form of the most interesting nature. The pupil will be deeply interested in the origin of Thanksgiving and the conditions under which the Pilgrims ate the first Thanksgiving dinner. The topic of the fourth month, the Story of Christmas, can be presented in story form along the same general lines. The boyhood of Washington, Franklin, Lincoln and Grant can be made most interesting to children in story form, and will introduce them to the most interesting periods of our history. By referring to the index of Thomas's Elementary History and Channing's First Lessons in United States History, the teacher will find ample material on which to base this work.

FIRST MONTH

Talks on Government in the Home

SECOND MONTH

Talks on Government in the School

THIRD MONTH

Thanksgiving

FOURTH MONTH

Christmas

FIFTH MONTH

Boyhood of Washington

SIXTH MONTH

Boyhood of Franklin

SEVENTH MONTH

Boyhood of Lincoln

EIGHTH MONTH

Boyhood of Grant

NINTH AND TENTH MONTHS

Work to be selected by the Teacher

FOURTH YEAR WORK

In studying the topic of the first month, the pupils will be very much interested in talking with their parents and others about the life and hardships of the early settlers of the neighborhood and county. They should be encouraged to secure all the information possible in order that they may become fairly familiar with the early history of their county and city. The topic of the second month, Local Government, should receive careful consideration. The pupils should secure a good idea of the school government of the school district and city. They should learn

how school districts are formed; how the school trustees and the members of the city board of education are elected; how the teachers are elected; the object for maintaining the schools; and why parents are so willing to be taxed for the support of the public school system. From this month's work the pupil should also learn about county and city government. He should learn how county and city officers are elected and the general duties of the same. Some of the pupils will no doubt be acquainted with some of the county and city officials, and this personal element should be emphasized as much as possible. It is not supposed of course that the pupils will secure a thorough knowledge of local government from this month's work, but they should secure a general idea of the same and should have created in them a desire to learn more about the government of the school district, county and city. The history work of the other six months of this grade is to be presented as indicated by the suggestions on the third grade work.

FIRST MONTH

Early History of the Neighborhood and County

SECOND MONTH

Local Government

THIRD MONTH

Columbus

FOURTH MONTH

Sir Walter Raleigh

FIFTH MONTH

Captain John Smith

SIXTH MONTH

Miles Standish

SEVENTH MONTH

William Penn

EIGHTH MONTH

Daniel Boone

NINTH AND TENTH MONTHS

Work to be selected by the Teacher

FIFTH YEAR WORK

With this grade the pupil is to begin the systematic reading of history. The nature of the reading to which reference is given is naturally interesting to the pupil, but great care must be taken in order to prevent this work from becoming dry and a drudgery to him. Before asking the pupil to begin reading the references on any topic for any month, the teacher in a short talk should interest him in the topic. The pupils should all be required to complete the reading of the references on any topic by a given time, but they should be encouraged to do this reading without any thought of a recitation, or outline of any kind. After the reading on a topic is completed, the teacher should select the more important points covered by that topic and ask the pupils to prepare for a recitation on these points. The entire topic can then be treated in accordance with the suggestions on the work of the third grade, and should be made to constitute an important part of the pupil's language work.

The work of the first four months of this grade is on local state history and from it the pupil should secure a fair idea of the history, resources and government of the state. During the fourth month the government of the state should receive careful consideration. The pupil should understand the object of state government and the reasons for dividing it into the legislative, executive and judicial departments. He should learn the official titles for the different state officials, how they are elected and the general powers and duties of each. In connection with the work of the first three months, each pupil should own a copy of a good local state history and should make liberal use of other good books and material on the history of the state. The work herein outlined on California will serve to indicate the nature of that which should be done on state history. For the first three months of this grade two lines of work on California have been definitely outlined. It is suggested that at least one of the lines be

carefully completed. The first outline for these three months' work provides for a careful correlation of the early history of California with a description of her natural resources and the history of how these natural resources have been developed. In connection with this work each pupil should own a copy of Sexton's Stories of California. It is the most interesting, comprehensive and truthful little book yet written on California for the use of young pupils. Some schools may wish to have the work on California during these first three months deal largely with the early history of the state. Those schools that desire to do this should complete the work provided for in the second outline. In connection with this work each pupil should own a copy of Wagner's Pacific History Stories, which has been revised especially for this work. During the first four months of this grade, pupils should read "The Spanish in the Southwest" by Mrs. Rose Winterburn. There need be no special recitation on the subject matter of this book, but the teacher should require each pupil to read it in connection with the four months' work on California, because it will give the pupil at least a general idea of Pacific Coast history and assist in the treatment of some of the assigned topics on California.

FIRST MONTH

I The Men Who Discovered California
Sx. 1–7

II The Spanish and the Missions
Sx. 8–29

III How California Became Part of the United States
Sx. 30–36

IV Gold and the Argonauts
Sx. 37–66

V The Overland Railroad
Sx. 67–74

SECOND MONTH

I The Story of the Farms, the Orchards and the Vineyards of California
Sx. 75–91

II The Story of the Orange and the Lemon
Sx. 92–101

III Flowers and Plants
Sx. 102–110

IV The Big Trees
Sx. 110–120

V The Birds and Wild Animals of California
Sx. 121–144

THIRD MONTH

I In Salt and Fresh Water
Sx. 145–158

II About California's Indians
Sx. 159–168

III The Story of San Francisco
Sx. 169–179

IV Men California Remembers
Sx. 180–190

V California Climate and Scenery
Sx. 191–208

FOURTH MONTH

State Government

The three months' work outlined below on the history of California corresponds to the first three months covered by the outline above, and deals with the early history of the state and the remainder of the Pacific Coast.

FIRST MONTH

I Discovery of the Pacific
Wa. Chap. 1

II Voyages of Discovery Along the Pacific Coast
Wa. Chap. 2

III Overland Discoveries
Wa. Chap. 3

IV The Natives
Wa. Chap. 4

SECOND MONTH

I The Missions
Wa. Chap. 5

II Early Settlements
Wa. Chap. 6

III The Discovery of Gold
Wa. Chap. 7

IV The Formation of the State
Wa. Chap. 8

THIRD MONTH

I The State Government
Wa. Chap. 9

II San Francisco
Wa. Chap. 10

III The Industrial Development
Wa. Chap. 11

IV Historical Landmarks
Wa. Chap. 12

The reading on English history assigned for the last four months of this grade is of the utmost importance. The history

of the United States is closely connected with, in fact, is a part of, English history. It is very important, therefore, that the child should secure at least a general idea of English history. The two books to which references are given are splendidly adapted for securing this result. They are of the deepest interest to the pupil, and the teacher will find it an easy matter to induce each pupil to read them during the four months assigned to this work. No attempt should be made to cover these books closely by means of recitations, but there should be an occasional recitation, and an occasional discussion by the teacher, in order to make sure that the reading is being properly done. The pupils in the latter part of the fifth grade are old enough to do this reading without much assistance from the teacher, but she should closely supervise this work in order that her pupils may secure the proper results from the time they devote to it.

FIFTH MONTH

ENGLAND FROM EARLY DAYS TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST
B. 1–52; W. 1–61

SIXTH MONTH

ENGLAND FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST TO THE END OF THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR
B. 53–99; W. 62–137

SEVENTH MONTH

ENGLAND FROM THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR TO THE REVOLUTION OF 1688
B. 100–144; W. 138–307

EIGHTH MONTH

ENGLAND FROM THE REVOLUTION OF 1688 TO THE PRESENT TIME
B. 145–185; W. 308–462

NINTH AND TENTH MONTHS

Work to be selected by the teacher

SIXTH YEAR WORK

The work of the sixth grade deals with the history of the United States. The first month covers the period of discovery and exploration; the second month, the settlement of the southern colonies; the third month, the settlement of New England; the fourth month, the settlement of the middle colonies; the fifth month, the period of the Revolution and the adoption of the Federal Constitution; the sixth month, the period between the adoption of the Federal Constitution and the War of 1812; the seventh month, the period from 1812 to the election of Lincoln; and the eighth month the period from 1860 to the present time. This work should not consist of the fiction which has grown up in connection with our history, and of which the average biographical primary history largely consists. While the two books assigned are as interesting as a novel, they are true to historical facts. The pupil should own each of these books. The references to Channing should always be read by the pupil before he reads those to Thomas's Elementary History, because Channing's language and treatment are simpler than those of Thomas. The teacher by a short talk should always interest the pupil in each topic before asking him to read the references. After the reading on a topic is completed, it should be treated as indicated by the suggestions on the work of the third and fifth grades.

Professor McMurry has just had published three books of Pioneer History Stories. These books have been prepared especially for use in the intermediate grades. The title of the first book is Pioneers on Land and Sea; the second book, Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley; the third book, Pioneers of the Rocky Mountains and the West. These three books are distinctly the best and most interesting for young pupils yet written along these lines, and should be read by every pupil in the sixth grade.

FIRST MONTH

I COLUMBUS

C. 6–17; T. 7–25

II The Cabots
C. 11; T. 26–29

III Why the New World Was Called America
C. 12

IV DeSoto
C. 14–15; T. 31–39

V Drake
C. 23–25; T. 40–43

VI Cartier
C. 21–23

VII Raliegh
C. 27; T. 43–49

SECOND MONTH

I Virginia
C. 28–36; T. 50–61, 117–121

II Maryland
C. 36–37; T. 92–94

III The Carolinas
C. 37

IV Georgia
T. 133–138

THIRD MONTH

I The Pilgrims
C. 41–50; T. 67–83

II The Puritans
C. 50–54; T. 85–94

III King Philip's War
T. 95–100

FOURTH MONTH

I New York and New Jersey
C. 55–58; T. 102–109

II Pennsylvania and Delaware
C. 59–61; T. 123–132

FIFTH MONTH

I Franklin
C. 67–74; T. 150–167

II Washington Before the Revolution
C. 75–83; T. 168–186

III The Revolution
C. 84–118; T. 187–216

IV The Convention
C. 120–122; T. 211–216

SIXTH MONTH

I Daniel Boone
C. 123–125; T. 219–230

II Jefferson
C. 136–138; T. 232–240

III Lewis and Clarke
C. 138–140; T. 241–247

IV Early Inventions
C. 160–170; T. 253–264, 277–288

SEVENTH MONTH

I The War of 1812
C. 141–147; T. 265–276

II Jackson and Webster
C. 155–159

III Texas, the Mexican War and California
C. 175–179, 187–190; T. 299–304

EIGHTH MONTH

I Lincoln and Douglas
C. 181–185, 191–194; T. 306–316

II The Civil War
C. 195–234; T. 318–327

III The United States Since the Civil War
C. 235–253; T. 329–338

NINTH AND TENTH MONTHS

Work to be selected by the teacher

SEVENTH YEAR WORK

INTRODUCTORY

A topical outline similar to the one below precedes each general topic or chapter of the work for the seventh and eighth grades. Each outline consists of the topical arrangement of the subdivisions of the general topic. Specific references are given on each subdivision. These topical outlines and the references given are exact duplicates of those in the Pupil's Outline in American History, and they are placed in this manual for the assistance and convenience of the teacher.

A CONDITIONS FAVORABLE TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

I Ancient Ideas of the World
M. 1–2; E. 23–25

II False Ideas of the World Not Due to Lack of Civilization
(To be discussed by the teacher)

III Conditions in Europe Hindering Exploration
(To be discussed by the teacher)

IV Conditions Leading to Exploration
1. *Increasing Importance of Commerce*
Mc. 9–10; F. 21–22

2. *Need of New Trade Routes*
Mc. 10–11; T. 7–9; M. 4–9; F. 23, 26–27

B DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

I Voyages of the Northmen
H. I. 1–3; T. 6–7; M. 2–4; F. 19–21

II Spanish Discoveries and Explorations
Mc. 11–14, 17–22; H. I. 4–6, 10–19; T. 7–16; M. 14–18, 23–27, 28–31; F. 27–30, 35–37, 40–46

III English Discoveries and Explorations
Mc. 14, 26–29; H. I. 7–8, 23–25; T. 11, 14–16; M. 18–20, 33–38; F. 30, 59, 62–64

IV French Discoveries and Explorations
Mc. 26–29; T. 16–17; M. 27–28, 31–33; F. 50–54

V Portuguese Discoveries and Explorations
Mc. 14–16; H. I. 10; T. 12; M. 20–22; F. 32–35

VI Dutch Discoveries and Explorations
Mc. 36–39; T. 22–23; M. 67–69; F. 130

C DISPOSITION OF TERRITORY IN THE NEW WORLD
(To be discussed by the teacher)

D DECLINE OF SPANISH POWER

I Spain's Early Supremacy on the Sea
(To be discussed by the teacher)

II Defeat of the Spanish Armada
F. 60–62

E THE AMERICAN INDIAN

I Origin of Name
Mc. 66; T. 11; M. 15; F. 2

II Classification According to Civilization
Mc. 68; T. 4–6; F. 3–4, 8–14
1. *Savage Indians*
2. *Barbarous Indians*
3. *Half-Civilized Indians*

III Appearance and Manner of Living
Mc. 66–68; H. I. 95–97, 116–119, 121–125; H. II. 72–76; T. 1–4; M. 40–44; F. 3–7

IV Character
Mc. 69–70; H. I. 113–114, 116–119; M. 45–46; F. 8

INTRODUCTORY

CONDITIONS FAVORABLE TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

I Ancient Ideas of the World

For more than six thousand years the people of the Old World believed that the earth was flat, and that it was all covered with water except that part occupied by Europe, Asia and Africa. Until a little more than four hundred years ago, the people of the Old World had no idea that North America, South America, Australia and numerous islands in the Atlantic and Pacific oceans existed. The New World has existed and has been inhabited by mankind and by the lower animals for many thousands of years, and yet until recent years it was totally unknown to the people of Europe. Up to about four hundred years ago, not a single man that ever lived had any accurate idea as to how large even Asia and Africa were. The people of Europe—at least some of them—were acquainted with western Asia and northern Africa, but they did not know how far these continents extended or how large they were. Marco Polo and a few others had visited China and had heard of Japan, but this was all Europe knew of eastern Asia, and it knew still less about southern Africa. For thousands of years the great, civilized nations of Asia, northern Africa and southern Europe existed, and yet the people of those nations lived and died believing that the earth was flat, that the New World did not exist, and that Africa and Asia were much smaller than they are.

II False Ideas of the World Not Due to Lack of Civilization

This wrong idea which the people of Europe had for so many thousand years, regarding the extent of the land and the shape of the earth, was not due to lack of a high state of

civilization. The people of Greece more than twenty-three hundred years ago and the people of Rome more than two thousand years ago were much better educated than were the people of Europe four hundred years ago, when Columbus discovered the New World. The civilizations which these ancient Greeks and Romans produced excelled in many ways the civilization which existed in Europe during the time of Columbus. The literature, the sculpture and the fine, noble buildings produced by them have never yet been excelled, and in some things along these lines we cannot do as well as was done in ancient Greece and Rome.

III Conditions in Europe Hindering Exploration

While the people of Europe at the time the New World was discovered were not so intelligent along many lines as were the Greeks and Romans, they lived under conditions which would cause them to think more about the extent of the land and the shape of the earth, and hence they would naturally have a greater desire to find out the truth about these matters. The Greeks and Romans occupied the peninsulas of Italy and Greece, which together are not so large as the state of Texas, and less than one-twenty-seventh as large as the rest of Europe. Half-civilized people lived in all the other parts of Europe except those parts conquered by Rome. The Greeks and Romans were kept busy defending themselves against these people and were finally compelled to submit to them. They had all they could do to learn about Europe and the other continents around the Mediterranean Sea, without trying to explore the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and they seem to have had no desire to do so. Aristotle, a Greek philosopher who lived twenty-two hundred years ago, believed that the earth was round and that eastern Asia could be reached by sailing west from western Europe. Some other philosophers who lived between the time of Aristotle and the discovery of America had the same idea, but the people of Greece and Rome, and later those in the

rest of Europe, were too busy with the affairs and conditions in the Old World to think seriously about these ideas, or to attempt to put them into practice by sailing west out over the Atlantic Ocean.

IV Conditions Leading to Exploration

It was quite different a little more than four hundred years ago when the New World was discovered. More people lived in Europe then than ever before, and through natural advancement and the influence of Greek and Roman laws, literature, and ideas, all Europe had become civilized. Having occupied all of Europe, having become more intelligent and progressive, it is but natural that many of the practical and educated men of Europe, as well as the philosophers, should ask themselves the question—what lies beyond the water? This desire to know more about the size and shape of the earth, together with the improvement in shipbuilding and the practical use of the compass for the purpose of navigation, would soon have led to the exploration of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans and to the discovery of America, even if the condition of commerce, which is discussed below, had not made the business men of Europe extremely anxious to secure some new way by which they could reach the rich products of India and eastern Asia.

1. *Increasing Importance of Commerce*

The Greeks and Romans traded a great deal with the people of Asia, but when the Roman Empire was destroyed about fourteen hundred years ago by the half-civilized people of central Europe, this commerce was almost ruined. During the seven hundred years from the time of the fall of the Roman Empire (476 A. D.) to 1200 A. D., Europe traded very little with Asia, the people of Europe being only half-civilized. About six hundred years ago the people of Europe had become settled in well organized governments, were becoming better civilized and educated, and

were becoming better acquainted with Asia and the things produced there. The merchants of Europe began to trade the woods, metals and other things which it produced to the people of Asia for the spices, pearls, silk, gems and other things which they produced. By 1400 A. D. this trade had increased until it constituted a great commerce or interchange of products between the peoples of Europe and Asia. Great commercial cities grew up, whose prosperity depended largely on this commerce. Venice and Genoa were two of the most important of these cities, and their merchants carried on an immense trade with Asia. From the commercial cities on the coast, the rich products of Asia were sent inland to the different parts of Europe, and naturally there was an increasing demand for these comforts and luxuries.

2. *Need of New Trade Routes*

The goods which Europe sent to Asia and which Asia sent to Europe had to be carried by ships and by caravans over one of three routes. These routes were by way of the Black and Caspian seas and thence overland to India; across Syria to the Persian Gulf and thence by ship to India; and by way of Egypt to the Red sea and thence by ship to India. Now it so happened that the Turks, during the time that this trade between Europe and Asia was increasing, were gradually over-running the western part of Asia, which included the territory over which these trade routes passed. The Turks made it a regular business to capture the caravans conveying these goods and to murder those in charge. By 1490 A. D. they had almost destroyed the great commerce between Asia and Europe. It became necessary to give up this trade or to find some new route over which the goods might be conveyed. This caused the merchants and sailors of Europe to give the question of finding a new route serious consideration. Some maintained that if the earth were round, eastern Asia could be

reached by sailing west from Europe. Among this number was Christopher Columbus. On the third day of August, 1492, he sailed from Palos, Spain, with three small ships and ninety men to test the correctness of this theory. Other men had talked and philosophized about the earth being round, but Columbus was the first to test a scientific theory by bidding good-by to the known world, sailing out into the unknown seas and facing the terrors which superstition for ages had planted in the mind of man. It was an act as brave as history records. The trackless ocean was his highway; faith in a scientific theory his guiding star.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Conditions Favorable to the Discovery of America)

The class recitation is of the utmost importance. The nature of a pupil's work on a subject will soon be determined by the nature of the questions asked him during the recitation. Only questions bringing out the more important features of the topic and directly aiding a logical development of the subject should be asked. The preparation of such questions requires time and a great deal of hard work. In order to aid the teacher, questions for class recitation have been carefully prepared and are placed at the end of each general topic. The Roman numerals separating these questions refer to the sub-topics with corresponding numerals. The pupils will not be able to find material on some of these questions, but the general discussions by the teacher, material for most of which is found in this manual, will give the pupil the necessary information. When reciting the pupil should be required to stand and give a full and complete discussion of the question under consideration. This cultivates confidence in the pupil and causes him to make ample preparation for the recitation.

I

Before the New World was discovered, what were the ideas of the people regarding the shape of the earth? How long had these ideas been held? Were there any men during this long period who had a correct idea of the shape of the earth? How much of the world was known before Columbus discovered America? (The pupil should be required to draw a map of the world as known before the time of Columbus.)

II

Was it because the people were ignorant and uncivilized that they had

these false ideas about the world? Tell what you can about the civilizations of ancient Greece and Rome.

III

Why were the Greeks and Romans so little interested in learning more about the shape and size of the earth?

IV

About the time of Columbus what made the people of Europe anxious to learn more about these things? Tell what you can about the growth of commerce before the discovery of America. What interfered with the trade between Europe and Asia? How did this lead to the discovery of America?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

The school work on most subjects is injured because teachers do not have a definite idea as to the nature of the work which boards of education and superintendents desire. The teacher is often afraid that her pupils will not be able to pass the final examination for promotion or graduation. Teachers have learned by experience that many of the questions asked are "catch questions" and are of little value. This frequently leads them to prepare pupils for such examinations, which is worse than a waste of time. In order to overcome the evil results of this method, a few general questions have been prepared on each general topic. The object of these questions is to secure a logical development of history and civics in the seventh and eighth grades, and to indicate what the nature of the completed work on each topic should be. The general questions are especially valuable for composition work, and for written reviews or tests at the end of the work on each topic or at the end of each month. It is strongly urged that the teachers be given to understand distinctly that the examination questions for promotion and graduation will be restricted to the general questions contained in this manual. It is also urged that the pupils too understand this. This method will secure the concentration of the teacher's and pupil's time on the essential features of American history, and will also secure a logical development of the subject. If the pupils can give a good discussion of each of these general questions, he will have secured much value from the time which he has devoted to history and civics.

Discuss the conditions that prevented the discovery of the New World before the time of Columbus. Discuss the conditions that led to the discovery of America.

DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

I VOYAGES OF THE NORTHMEN

Sailors of Norway, Sweden and Denmark—called the Northmen—visited the northwestern shores of North America about the year 1000 A. D. They had settlements in Iceland and Greenland, but there is no evidence that they ever made a settlement this side of Greenland. Their visits to the mainland soon ceased and the land and the voyages were soon forgotten. These voyages had no influence on the real discovery of America or on its later history.

II SPANISH DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

The Spanish people discovered and explored most of the West Indian Islands, Florida, the southwestern part of the United States, Mexico, Central America, and South America, except Brazil. The principal Spanish explorers whose work had direct relation to the United States or to determining the extent and shape of the earth were Columbus, Ponce de Leon, Balboa, Magellan and De Soto.

III ENGLISH DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

The English discovered and explored the eastern part of North America from Florida to Canada. The principal English explorers were the Cabots, Drake, Gilbert and Raleigh.

IV FRENCH DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

The French explored the larger part of the Mississippi Valley and the eastern part of Canada, including the region of the Great Lakes. The principal French explorers were Cartier, Champlain, Marquette, Joliet and La Salle.

V PORTUGUESE DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

The Portuguese made no explorations in North America, but Americus Vespucius, while in the employ of the King of Portugal, explored the coast of Brazil in South America.

VI DUTCH DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

Holland explored and settled the present state of New York. Henry Hudson was the principal explorer.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Discoveries and Explorations)

In connection with the discoveries and explorations of each nation, the pupil should be required to trace on the map the routes of each of the explorers, showing the part of the New World discovered and explored by each nation.

I

Who were the Northmen? When did they visit America? What part of America did they visit? Why are they not considered the discoverers of the New World? Were their voyages to America important?

II

For what was Columbus searching when he made his voyage in 1492? Why was he disappointed when he found the New World? What other famous Spanish explorers made voyages to America soon after Columbus's first voyage? Tell what you can about the first voyage made around the world. What part of America did Ponce de Leon explore? Who discovered the Pacific Ocean? Tell what you can about the explorations of De Soto.

III

Describe the voyages and explorations of the Cabots. Of what value were these explorations to England? Give a full description of the voyage of the first Englishman around the world. Describe the attempt of Gilbert and Raleigh to establish a colony in the New World.

IV

Describe the work of Cartier. Give a full description of the explorations of Champlain. Tell what you can of the work of Joliet and Marquette. Give a full description of La Salle's work.

V

Why was the New World called America instead of being named for Columbus?

VI

Tell what you can of Henry Hudson and his work.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the voyages of the Northmen to America. Discuss the Spanish discoveries and explorations. Discuss the English explorations. Compare the explorations of the Spanish with those of the English in respect to location and importance. How do the French explorations compare in importance with those of the Spanish and English?

DISPOSITION OF TERRITORY IN THE NEW WORLD

It was customary for the captain of a ship or the commander of a fleet when he discovered land in the New World, to take possession of it in the name of his sovereign. Thus the nations of Europe based their claims to territory on the "right of discovery." It was on this so-called right that Spain claimed most of the West Indies, all of South America except Brazil, Central America, Mexico, Florida, and the Southwestern part of the United States; England, the Atlantic Coast from Canada to Florida; France, all the territory drained by the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence and their tributaries; Holland, New York; and Portugal, Brazil. England granted her territory in North America to companies and to individuals, and established some crown colonies, which were under the direct control of the sovereign. Many of these grants made by the English sovereigns were described as extending from "sea to sea," that is from the Atlantic to the Pacific. As these grants did not always extend due east and west, they frequently overlapped, and in after years caused considerable trouble owing to conflicting claims.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Disposition of Territory in the New World)

What was the "right of discovery"? What part of the New World did Spain claim by this right? What did England claim? What part did France claim? What territory in America did other nations claim by the right of discovery? How did England dispose of her territory in the New World? Why did this cause trouble in later years?

QUESTIONS FOR COMPOSITIONS AND EXAMINATIONS

Discuss the claims of the various nations to the territory of the New World.

DECLINE OF SPANISH POWER

I Spain's Early Supremacy on the Sea

For more than eighty years after the discovery of America, Spain was the most powerful nation of the world. She was practically mistress of the seas, having a larger navy than any other nation. This gave her an immense advantage in securing lands and forming settlements in the New World. So long as she was stronger on the seas than any other nation, she could control, to a large extent, the development of America. She had secured far more of this new territory than any other nation. She was obtaining a large amount of money from the mines of Mexico and Peru. All this tended to increase her influence in both Europe and Asia.

II Defeat of the Spanish Armada

But Spain was soon to lose this proud leadership among the nations of the world. England sent an army to assist Holland in its attempt to regain independence from Spain. Sir Francis Drake and other bold English sea captains captured the Spanish treasure ships which were on their way from Mexico and Peru. They even sailed into the Spanish harbors and destroyed vessels in sight of the people. Drake called these acts "singeing the King of Spain's beard." These acts so enraged the Spanish King, Phillip II, that he determined to invade England and annex it to his kingdom. In 1588 he collected a fleet of about one hundred and fifty ships which carried more than three thousand cannon. This fleet was considered so powerful that it was called the Invincible Armada. It was thought by many military men on the continent of Europe that England would be conquered. The English people were thoroughly aroused, but they were not frightened. They were putting forth every effort to collect a fleet with which to meet the Armada. The English navy contained but thirty-eight ships, and most of these were small and poorly equipped. But the merchants gave their ships freely for the purpose of defense, and a fleet was collected though it was small as compared with the Spanish fleet.

Lord Effingham, Drake, Hawkins and other English sea captains were placed in command. No greater sea fighters than some of these men ever lived. The Spanish commanders did not compare with them in ability. When the Invincible Armada entered the English channel, the English fleet did not make a direct attack, but hung on its flanks, destroying ship after ship, and in a long running fight drove the Armada through the channel into the North Sea. The defeated Spaniards could not return to Spain through the English Channel, and were forced to sail around the north of Scotland where storms destroyed so many of their ships that not more than one-third of them finally reached Spain. This crushing defeat of the Invincible Armada had a most important bearing on the history of the New World. It marked the beginning of Spain's decline on both land and sea. She has been growing weaker ever since. It also marks the beginning of England as a sea power. She soon became mistress of the seas and has since held this position. All this meant that England and not Spain should have most to do in shaping the growth of America. From this time on France was England's only serious competitor in colonizing North America.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Decline of Spanish Power)

I

How did the power of Spain compare with that of other nations at the time of Columbus? How did this help her in America? How did Spain's possessions in America help build up her influence in Europe?

II

How did the English sea captains injure Spain, and who were the most noted of these captains? Why did the King of Spain make war on England? What was the Invincible Armada? How did the English fleet compare with the Spanish? Which nation had the better commanders? How did the English fleet attack the Armada? What was the result of this battle? What was the effect of the defeat of the Invincible Armada on Spain? What effect did it have on England's sea power? How did this affect North America?

QUESTIONS FOR COMPOSITIONS AND EXAMINATIONS

Discuss the decline of Spanish power and its effect on America.

THE AMERICAN INDIAN

I Origin of Name

When Columbus discovered the New World he thought it a part of Asia. He thought the islands a part of the East Indies, and accordingly called the inhabitants Indians. The name was afterwards applied to all the native inhabitants of America.

II Classification According to Civilization

1. *Savage Indians*

The savage Indians lived in North America. They occupied Alaska, all the Rocky Mountain region except part of Arizona and New Mexico, all the territory west of these mountains, and the territory in the north between Hudson Bay and the Pacific ocean. They were divided into several tribes, among the more important being the Apache.

2. *Barbarous Indians*

The barbarous Indians also lived in North America. In the United States they occupied all the country east of the Rocky Mountains, and in Canada all the country south and east of Hudson Bay. The only Indians who had any real influence on the history of the United States occupied the territory between the Mississippi River and the Atlantic Ocean. They are divided into three general divisions or races, Maskoki, Iroquois and Algonquin. Each division or race consisted of a number of tribes, each tribe of a number of clans, and each clan was composed of a number of families. Each race spoke a different language. The Maskokis occupied all of the southern states east of the Mississippi, except a portion of Tennessee and North Carolina. They included a number of tribes, the more important ones being the Creeks, Choctaws and Chickasaws. The Iroquois race was the strongest one in North America, and it had more influence on the history of the United States than any other. It occupied New York, Pennsyl-

vania, the country between Lakes Huron and Erie, the northeastern part of Ohio, and the larger portion of North Carolina, and Tennessee. The more important tribes of this race were the Five Nations in New York, the Hurons north of Lake Erie, and the Cherokees of Tennessee. The Algonquin race occupied all the country east of the Mississippi between Tennessee and North Carolina on the south, to Labrador on the north, except that part occupied by the Iroquois. The more important tribes of this race were the Powhatans of Virginia, the Delawares of Delaware, and the Mohegans and Narragansetts of New England.

3. *Half-Civilized Indians*

The half-civilized Indians occupied the mountain regions from New Mexico to Chili. Among the more important races were the Pueblos of Arizona and New Mexico, the Aztecs of Mexico, and the Incas of Peru. They built cities and temples, constructed military roads, raised various products, and made fine cloth.

III Appearance and Manner of Living

All American Indians were alike in some respects. They had black hair, black eyes, a copper-colored skin, high cheek bones, and no beard. The barbarous Indians raised some agricultural products, but secured most of their food by hunting and fishing. They lived in huts and wigwams, and the women did most of the hard work. This mode of living required a large territory for a small number of people, and therefore the number of Indians was always small.

IV Character

Although the Indian was kind and hospitable to friends, he was by nature cruel, revengeful and treacherous. He was brave and would suffer torture without complaint, but in war he used all the tactics of a coward, never making a fair open fight if he could avoid it. He delighted in torturing prisoners,

and in murdering women and children. In domestic life he was lazy and filthy. But with all these faults he was intelligent, proud and haughty, and could never be enslaved.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(The American Indian)

I

Why were the native inhabitants of America called Indians?

II

What is the difference between savage and barbarous Indians? Between barbarous and half-civilized Indians? Where did the savage Indians live? What part of America did the barbarous Indians inhabit? Into what races were the barbarous Indians divided? Where did each race live? How did these races differ? Name the more important tribes of each race of the barbarous Indians. Where did the half-civilized Indians live? How did they differ from the savage and barbarous Indians? What Indians had the most influence on the history of the United States, the savage, the barbarous, or the half-civilized? Why was this? Show on the map where each of the races of each class of Indians lived.

III

In what ways were all American Indians alike? Tell all you can about the way they lived. Why were there not more Indians in so large a country?

IV

Describe the nature and habits of the Indian. Why did the white man not make slaves of the Indians as he did of the negroes?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Compare the savage, barbarous, and half-civilized Indians in respect to civilization and location. Describe the appearance of the American Indian and his manner of living. Discuss the character of the Indian.

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

ORIGIN, GROWTH AND POLITICAL HISTORY

A THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

I VIRGINIA

1. *Origin*
   Mc. 29–32; T. 19–21; M. 52–57; F. 65–69

2. *Character of Early Settlers*
   H. I, 175–177; M. 57–58; F. 69–70

3. *Origin of Representative Government in America*
   Mc. 33; T. 22; M. 59–60; F. 72

4. *Virginia Made a Royal Province*
   Mc. 34; T. 39–40; M. 62; F. 73–74

5. *Quarrels Between the People and the Royal Governors*
   F. 74–75

6. *Sir William Berkeley*
   M. 62–65; F. 75–76

7. *Bacon's Rebellion*
   T. 40–41; M. 65–66; F. 77–78

II MARYLAND

1. *Origin*
   Mc. 34–36; H. I, 143–146; T. 36–37; M. 103–104; F. 124–127

2. *Nature of Government*
   Mc. 35; T. 37–38; M. 105; F. 126–127

3. *Religious Disputes*
   Mc. 35–36; T. 38–39; M. 105–107; F. 127–128

III North and South Carolina

1. *Origin*
   Mc. 54–55; T. 42–44; M. 113–115; F. 147–149
2. *Character of Colonists*
   T. 44; M. 115; F. 148–150
3. *Government*
   T. 42–43; M. 115–116

IV Georgia

1. *Origin: Character of Settlers*
   Mc. 57–58; T. 57; M. 122–124; F. 150–152
2. *Government*
   T. 57–58; M. 125–126; F. 152

B NEW ENGLAND

I Origin and Growth in Population

1. *Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay Colonies*
   (a) Origin of Puritans and Separatists
   Mc. 40; M. 76–77; F. 86–87
   (b) Persecution of Puritans and Separatists
   Mc. 41; H. I, 180–181; T. 24; M. 77; F. 87–88
   (c) The Founding of Plymouth Colony
   Mc. 41–46; H. I, 133–136; T. 25–28; M. 78–82; F. 88–91
   (d) The Founding of Massachusetts Bay Colony
   Mc. 46–47; H. I, 25–28, 136–140; T. 28–30; M. 82–85; F. 91–93
2. *Connecticut and New Haven*
   Mc. 50–51; T. 35–36; M. 98–99, 101; F. 100–102
3. *Rhode Island*
   Mc. 49–50; T. 33–35; M. 86–88; F. 98–100

4. *New Hampshire and Maine*
   Mc. 47–48; T. 36; M. 96–98; F. 99–100

II GOVERNMENT IN EARLY NEW ENGLAND

1. *The Virginian and the Puritan: Union of Church and State*
   Mc. 48; T. 32–33; M. 62–63, 86, 96; F. 95–96
2. *Local Government: The Town Meeting*
   M. 81, 96; F. 94
3. *Government Under the Charters*
   Mc. 46, 50; T. 31–33; M. 85–86; F. 92, 102, 106–107
4. *New England Confederacy*
   (a) Origin
   Mc. 51–52; T. 64; M. 90; F. 107
   (b) Nature
   Mc. 52; T. 65; M. 90; F. 107
   (c) Defects
   (d) Value
   T. 65; M. 90

III RELATIONS OF THE ENGLISH WITH THE INDIANS

1. *The Indians and the Pilgrims*
   H. I, 28–30; T. 62; F. 90–91; M. 81–82
2. *The Pequod War*
   Mc. 71; T. 64; M. 88, 99–100; F. 103–104
3. *The Indians and the Puritans*
   Mc. 71; T. 62–63; M. 88; F. 103, 110
4. *King Philip's War*
   Mc. 72; T. 65–66; M. 93–94; F. 110–112

IV Under the Royal Governors

1. *Annulling of the Charter of Massachusetts Bay Colony*

   (a) First Attempts
   F. 97

   (b) The Confederacy and the Commonwealth
   T. 70

   (c) Quarrels Between Charles II and Massachusetts
   M. 95; F. 109

   (d) The Charter Annulled
   Mc. 53; E. 70–72; M. 95; F. 112–113

2. *Securing of Royal Charters by Rhode Island and Connecticut*
   Mc. 52–53; T. 34, 75; M. 102; F. 109–110

3. *Rule of Sir Edmund Andros*
   T. 72–75; M. 95; F. 114–115

4. *Massachusetts and New Hampshire from 1689 to 1766*
   Mc. 53; T. 75; M. 95, 97–98; F. 115–116

C THE MIDDLE COLONIES

I New York

1. *Discovery and Settlement*
   Mc. 36–39; M. 67–70; F. 129–131

2. *Character of the Colonists*
   Mc. 38, 102; H. I, 174; T. 48; M. 70–72; F. 131

3. *Government Under the Dutch*
   M. 71–73; F. 131–132

4. *The Colony Under English Control*
   Mc. 55; T. 46; M. 74; F. 133–134

5. *Under the Royal Governors*
   T. 47–48; F. 134–137

II New Jersey

1. *Origin*
   Mc. 55; T. 49; M. 75; F. 137
2. *Political History*
   Mc. 55; T. 49–50; M. 75–76; F. 138

III Delaware

Mc. 56–57; T. 56–57; M. 111–113; F. 132, 141

IV Pennsylvania

1. *Origin*
   Mc. 55–56; T. 52–53; M. 118; F. 138–139, 141
2. *Settlement and Growth*
   T. 54–56; M. 119, 122; F. 140–142
3. *Government*
   T. 54–57; M. 120; F. 139
4. *The Province Under Deputy Governors*
   (To be discussed by the teacher)

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

ORIGIN, GROWTH AND POLITICAL HISTORY

THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

I VIRGINIA

1. *Origin*

In 1606 James I, King of England, granted the land from about Cape Fear to the mouth of the Potomac river to a company of London merchants called the London Company. This company sent out colonists who in 1607 founded Jamestown, this being the first permanent English settlement in America. The colony did not prosper at first but was saved from total destruction by the work of John Smith, and later put on its feet by the arrival of Lord Delaware with provisions and about five hundred more settlers. The colony now became firmly established, and more colonists came over every year. By 1620 there were more than four thousand; in 1670 there were more than forty thousand; and in 1750 this number had increased to more than five hundred thousand.

2. *Character of Early Settlers*

The London Company was organized for the purpose of making money, and the earliest settlers came over for the same purpose. Very few of them intended to make homes and remain here permanently. Some called themselves gentlemen; some were criminals from the jails of England; and many were lazy and worthless. These men were governed by men appointed by the company, Captain John Smith and Sir Thomas Dale being the ablest of these early governors. Gradually a better class of men came into the colony. They came from the better class in England and came for the purpose of making homes for themselves and their families.

3. *Origin of Representative Government in America*

By 1619 the population of Virginia had reached four thousand. Most of these settlers were from the middle class of England and were accustomed to help make their laws and to levy their own taxes. They now asked the London Company to allow them to elect a body of men to help make the laws. Their request was granted and a legislative body called the House of Burgesses was elected by the settlers. This was the first law-making body elected in America.

4. *Virginia Made a Royal Province*

The London Company came to be very powerful, and was controlled by the Puritans who were the political and religious enemies of King James I. Accordingly he had the company's charter annulled, and in 1624 Virginia became a royal province, whose governor was appointed by the king. The people still elected the House of Burgesses which helped make the laws.

5. *Quarrels Between the People and the Royal Governors*

During nearly all the time that Virginia was a royal province, from 1624 to 1776, there was contention between the king and the royal governors on the one side and the colonists on the other, as to whether the latter should have any voice in law making. The kings and the royal governors wished to do away with the power of the House of Burgesses, but the people would not permit it. The constant friction between the people and the royal governors tended to cause the colonists to lose their respect and love for England, and this was indirectly one of the causes which led to the Revolutionary War.

6. *Sir William Berkeley*

One of the most important of the royal governors of Virginia was Sir William Berkeley. His long rule was

noted especially for two things: the large immigration of English colonists, and his steady opposition to the rights of the people. He was, perhaps, the most tyrannical of the royal governors.

7. *Bacon's Rebellion*

Governor Berkeley's refusal to protect the people on the frontier from Indian raids forced them to defend themselves. Nathaniel Bacon organized a force for this purpose, and for this was declared a rebel by Berkeley. After Bacon's death Berkeley regained his power and punished Bacon's followers with such severity that the people were still more aroused against the oppressive rule of the royal governors.

II MARYLAND

1. *Origin*

King Charles I granted to George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, the territory including the present states of Maryland and Delaware. Lord Baltimore's purpose was to provide a home for English Catholics. Two hundred colonists came over in 1634 and founded the town of St. Mary's, near the mouth of the Potomac. In 1688 the population of the colony had increased to about twenty-five thousand, and in 1760 there were more than one hundred forty-five thousand people living in Maryland.

2. *Nature of Government*

By the terms of the charter Lord Baltimore and his descendants had authority over the new colony almost equal to that of the English king, but the people had the right to assist in making the laws.

3. *Religious Disputes*

Several years after Maryland was first established, large numbers of Puritans came into the colony. Later the

Episcopalians became strong also, and most of the political history of the colony is closely related to religious contentions among the Catholics, Puritans and Episcopalians.

III North and South Carolina

1. *Origin*

In 1663 King Charles II granted the territory between Virginia and Florida to eight of his friends among whom were Sir William Berkeley, the Duke of Albemarle, the Earl of Clarendon, and the Earl of Shaftesbury. Before this charter was issued a few English colonists had made a settlement on Albemarle Sound and these were soon joined by others. The first settlement in South Carolina was made on the southern side of Charleston Harbor in 1670, and ten years later Charleston was founded. Other settlements were soon made in both North and South Carolina, the most important being around Charleston and on the Cape Fear River. But during the first thirty-five years the growth in population was not rapid. At first South Carolina was most populous, the settlements around Charleston in 1682 having a population of about three thousand. At the close of the seventeenth century the population began to increase more rapidly. In 1750 there were about ninety thousand people living in North Carolina, and about eighty thousand in South Carolina.

2. *Character of Colonists*

The colonists of North and South Carolina came from various nations and were members of different churches. Many came because of religious persecutions at home. This mixed population represented strength and determination.

3. *Government*

The proprietors to whom the king had granted the two colonies belonged to the Church of England, and their

efforts to keep all who did not belong to their church from taking any part in the government caused constant trouble between the governors, whom they appointed, and the people. The people insisted on helping make the laws and soon secured the right to elect legislative bodies. Because of frequent and serious disorders in the government the charter was annulled in 1729, and North and South Carolina each became a royal province.

IV Georgia

1. *Origin: Character of Settlers*

In 1732 King George II granted to James Oglethorpe and twenty other men the territory between South Carolina and Florida for the purpose of making homes for men who were imprisoned for debt in England. Rich men gave money and Parliament voted a sum to aid these debtors to make another start in the new colony which was called Georgia. Oglethorpe was appointed governor, and in 1733 he, with thirty-five families, made the first settlement in the last English colony to be established in America, by founding the city of Savannah. Augusta was founded the next year and five years later another settlement was made at the mouth of the Altamaha. The colony at first was not prosperous. In 1752 there were less than five thousand people living in Georgia, but from this time on the population increased more rapidly and had reached about fifty thousand in 1766.

2. *Government*

Oglethorpe was appointed governor before leaving England and continued to hold that office until 1743. The charter placed the government entirely in the hands of the proprietors, and the colonists assisted very little in making the laws. After Oglethorpe returned to England the affairs of the colony got into very bad shape, and in 1752 the colony was made a royal province.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(The Southern Colonies)

I

What was the object of the London Company in sending settlers to America? How did the London Company secure land? What territory did it secure? Describe the condition of the Jamestown settlement during the first year, and the work of John Smith. What was the character of the early settlers? Why did they come to the New World? Describe the government of the colony under Thomas Dale, and the condition of the colony under his rule.

What is representative government? Describe its origin in America. What is a royal province or colony? How and why did Virginia become a royal province? Did this change affect the law-making power of the people? Describe in a general way the relations between the royal governors and the people. What were the general results of these relations? How long was Sir William Berkeley governor of Virginia? What caused his term of office as governor to be divided? For what two things was his long rule especially noted? Describe Bacon's Rebellion, discussing its cause and results.

II

Contrast Virginia and Maryland with regard to the object of settlement. What is a proprietary colony? Describe the difference between the proprietary colony Maryland and the royal province Virginia in regard to the selection of governor. Contrast Maryland and Virginia in regard to the rights and powers the people had in the government of each colony. In what way did religious disputes affect Maryland? Describe the relations of Virginia and Maryland.

III

Describe the origin of North and South Carolina. Compare the granting of this territory with the granting of Virginia to the London Company. What is the form of government that first existed in the Carolinas called? Describe the character of the early settlers. Why did they settle in these two colonies? What rights did the people of these two colonies have in the government when it was first organized? How did the religious beliefs of the people affect these rights? What caused these two colonies to become royal provinces? Describe briefly the growth of these colonies, giving the names and locations of the larger towns.

IV

Describe the origin of Georgia, and give the reason for its settlement. What was the character of its early settlers? Describe the growth of this

colony. Why was the colony not more prosperous? What powers did the people have in the government? When and why did Georgia become a royal province?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the object of the settlement and the character of the settlers of each of the southern colonies. Compare these colonies with respect to growth in wealth and population. Discuss the origin of representative government in America. Compare the southern colonies with respect to the rights of the people in the government. Discuss the relations between the royal governors and the people.

NEW ENGLAND

I Origin and Growth in Population

1. *Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay Colonies*

(a) Origin of Puritans and Separatists

Because the Pope would not grant him permission to divorce his wife and marry Anne Boleyn, one of her maids, King Henry VIII of England induced Parliament to pass a statute which declared him and not the Pope the head of the Catholic Church in England. Henry did not wish to make many changes in the Church of England, as the Catholic church in England was then called, but many of the English people did, and after the reform was begun by the king, it could not easily be checked. Some withdrew from the church altogether and were therefore called Separatists. Some wished to remain in the church and reform or purify it, and these, therefore, were called Puritans.

(b) Persecution of Separatists and Puritans

The Separatists were not permitted to withdraw peacefully from the Episcopal or Established church, and to establish churches of their own. In many cases their property was taken from them, they were sent to jail and the leaders were put to death. In 1607 some of them escaped from England and settled in Holland. At first the Puritans joined in these persecutions, but soon they themselves began to be persecuted, and some of them joined the Separatists in Holland.

(c) The Founding of Plymouth Colony

The Separatists and Puritans who had fled to Holland did not wish to remain there, because they were afraid that their children would acquire the speech, habits, and manners of the Dutch. They wished to find a place where they could live and worship in peace and still remain British subjects in British territory. They had

heard of the success of the Jamestown colony and decided to establish a home for themselves and their children in the New World. In 1620 about one hundred of these Separatists, called Pilgrims, because of their wanderings, sailed for America in the Mayflower. On December 21st they landed on the coast of the present state of Massachusetts and founded the colony of Plymouth. The first winter was a severe one and more than half of the colonists died of cold, hunger, and disease. However, in the face of all discouragements these men and women clung to their new home persistently. In 1630 the colony contained only three hundred sixty persons, in 1640 about three thousand and in 1670 it had reached eight thousand.

(d) The Founding of Massachusetts Bay Colony

Charles I, who became king in 1625, was strongly opposed to both the religious and political ideas of the Puritans. The persecutions of the Puritans became worse and worse, and so they also decided to settle in the New World. In 1628 some of the leading Puritans purchased from the Plymouth or New England Company a large tract of land in Massachusetts lying between the Charles and the Merrimac Rivers and extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean. Soon afterward a small party of Puritans, led by John Endicott, settled at a place called Naumkeag and changed the name to Salem. In 1629 the King granted to the men who had purchased this tract of land a charter which created a corporation called the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay. During the same year about four hundred emigrants crossed to this territory and settled at Salem, thus making it larger than Plymouth, which had been founded nine years before. During 1630 more than one thousand Puritans came to New England and settled the towns of Charleston, Boston, Roxburg, Dorchester, Watertown, and New Town (later called Cam-

bridge). By 1635 the number of colonists in the different settlements in Massachusetts amounted to about five thousand.

2. *Connecticut and New Haven*

In 1636 the towns of Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield were founded by settlers from the Massachusetts Bay Colony. These three towns remained a part of Massachusetts until 1639, when they agreed to unite and were then known as the colony of Connecticut. In 1638 a wealthy congregation of Puritans from England founded New Haven, and around this town grew up other towns. These towns united and became the colony of New Haven. These two colonies kept up a separate existence until 1662, when Connecticut attained a royal charter which annexed to her the New Haven colony. The united colony prospered and its advance in wealth and population was rapid. By the time of the Revolution, Connecticut contained about two hundred thousand inhabitants.

3. *Rhode Island*

The settlement of Rhode Island was due largely to religious and political troubles in Massachusetts. Roger Williams, a Puritan minister, was banished from Massachusetts on account of the political and religious doctrines he taught. With his followers he bought land from the Indians and made a settlement called Providence. Other towns were founded by Anne Hutchinson and Samuel Gorton, and later all these united under the title Rhode Island.

4. *New Hampshire and Maine*

The earliest settlements in the territory later known as New Hampshire were two trading posts at Dover and Portsmouth, established in 1636 by John Mason and Fer-

dinand Gorges. In the territory known as Maine but few settlements were made. It was never known as one of the colonies except as a part of Massachusetts.

II Government in Early New England

1. *The Virginian and the Puritan: Union of Church and State*

The early settlers of Virginia and a large portion of those of the other southern colonies, did not come to the New World in order to escape from religious persecution. They belonged to the Episcopal or Established Church of England and therefore were under the protection of the government in religious matters. They came to the New World for the sake of adventure and more especially because they could make a better living for themselves and their children. They were thorough believers in the civil and political liberty which Englishmen enjoyed, and they and their descendants were as stout in the defense of those rights in the struggle with the English kings which ended in the Revolution, as were the people of New England. The colonists of New England, unlike those of Virginia, came to America mainly because of religious persecution in England. Many of them were men of wealth and were graduates of the English Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. They planned to and did establish a state based on Puritan ideas of religion and government. This does not mean that the Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay colonies were places where religious liberty existed. The Puritans persecuted those who preached any doctrine other than Puritanism just as severely as they themselves had been persecuted in England by Episcopalians. From the very first in Massachusetts the Church and State were very closely united. The laws provided that no one should vote or hold an office of any kind unless he were a member of a Puritan church or congregation. This form of government in which the Church and the State are thus connected is known as a Theocracy.

2. *Local Government: The Town Meeting*

The large immigration into Massachusetts Bay Colony called for the immediate organization of a definite form of government. As a rule the Puritans came over as congregations, and each congregation established a small town. The freemen of each town, which included the adjacent country, met at the meeting house or town hall and elected town officers and transacted all the town business.

3. *Government Under the Charters*

The charter granted to the Massachusetts Bay Company provided for the election of a governor and a deputy governor, and of a committee of eighteen members called assistants. These officers when assembled constituted what was known as the General Court. A little later representatives were elected from each town. These met in a separate legislative body and soon secured more power in the government than the governor and assistants. Government in the other New England colonies was much the same. In Rhode Island and Connecticut the Church and State were entirely separate. Connecticut differed from the other colonies in that she had a written constitution made and adopted by the people.

4. *New England Confederacy*

(a) Origin

There were certain conditions in early New England which might at any time require the colonies to act together. In order to be ready in case of attacks by the Dutch, French or Indians on the frontier, all the New England colonies except Rhode Island formed a confederacy. Rhode Island was excluded because of her unsettled religious and political conditions.

(b) Nature

The confederation was not a real union, but a mere agreement to act together on certain general questions.

The government was in charge of eight commissioners, two elected from each colony. The commissioners had entire control of questions arising between the colonies and the Indians, or a foreign power.

(c) Defects

The commissioners had no power to enforce their acts; the government was simply advisory. This lack of power made the Confederacy a weak form of union. Another weakness was that each of the colonies had the same power in the government, while they differed widely in population and wealth, Massachusetts having more inhabitants and paying more taxes than all the others combined. This caused ill feeling and weakened the Confederacy.

(d) Value

The Confederacy was especially valuable during the war with the Indians, 1675-78. It was also of value to all the English colonies in America as it served to prepare men's minds for unity of action a hundred years later when union became absolutely necessary in order that the colonists might maintain their rights.

III Relations of the English With the Indians

1. *The Indians and the Pilgrims*

Up to about 1635, the colonists of New England were not troubled by the Indians. The Pilgrims found few Indians in the region in which they settled. With these they made a treaty of peace which was faithfully kept both by the Indians and the English for more than fifty years. The attitude of the Indians further inland was also friendly at first.

2. *Pequod War*

The steady advance of the English into the Indian territory roused the dislike and jealousy of the Indians. This

feeling soon led to warfare which broke out between the Pequods and the settlers. This war resulted in the destruction of the entire tribe, the most powerful tribe in New England, and the effect upon the other Indians was such that they did not attack the English for nearly forty years.

3. *The Indians and the Puritans*

The dealings of the Puritans with the Indians were, on the whole, just and honorable. The Puritans converted many of the Indians to Christianity, and tried to educate and to civilize them but without much success. The Indian and the Puritan did not understand each other. The Indian had no conception of what private ownership of land meant, and when he saw finally that selling the land to the English meant giving it up forever and being put out of the territory, he became unfriendly. The Indians also resented having their chiefs called to account for the misdeeds of the members of the tribes.

4. *King Philip's War*

When Massasoit, who had made the early treaty of peace with the English, died, and his son Philip became chief of the Wampanoags, the growing dislike and distrust of the Indians for the English broke out in a war. This war began in 1675 and lasted three years with dreadful effect upon both the English and the Indians. It was much more serious than the Pequod war. Over four thousand well armed Indian warriors were united against the English. A great deal of life and property was lost, and a heavy debt was incurred by the English. The three tribes of Indians engaged were almost completely destroyed. The end of this war marks the end of Indian power in New England. It was a contest between the people of a weak race who owned the soil, and the invaders who belonged to a higher and stronger civilization. As is usually the case, the more vigorous and higher civilization triumphed.

IV Under the Royal Governors

1. *Annulling of the Charter of Massachusetts Bay Colony*

(a) First Attempts

King Charles I hated the Puritans and seized upon complaints made by people who had been banished from Massachusetts and others who were jealous of her power, as an excuse to attack her government. He demanded the charter in 1635 but Massachusetts refused to give it up and trouble at home kept him from sending an army to compel obedience.

(b) The Confederacy and the Commonwealth

In 1642 war broke out in England between Charles I and Parliament. In 1643 the New England Confederacy was formed, and from that time until the defeat of the King's army in 1649, New England was practically independent of outside power. During the time when Cromwell and Parliament ruled England without a king, New England continued to conduct her affairs about as she pleased, with little interference from the home government.

(c) Quarrels Between Charles II and Massachusetts

When Charles II came to the throne in 1662 he made certain courteous and reasonable demands of Massachusetts Bay Colony regarding the acknowledging of his authority, religious toleration for Episcopalians, and extending the right to vote to the members of other churches. The Colony refused to comply with these demands but war in Europe prevented Charles from taking action against it until 1675.

(d) The Charter Annulled

The Massachusetts Bay Colony had annexed New Hampshire and Maine. The heirs of Mason and Gorges to whom this territory had originally been granted, claimed that the territory belonged to them. King

Charles sent over a commissioner to investigate affairs in the colony, regarding its compliance with his demands, the state of feeling among the people, the colony's rights to New Hampshire and Maine, and the enforcing of English laws. The commissioner's report was very unfavorable to the colony, and in 1684 the charter was annulled.

2. *Securing of Royal Charters by Rhode Island and Connecticut*

When Charles II came to the throne, Rhode Island and Connecticut each sent a pleasing and flattering address to the king and secured charters which provided for a most liberal form of government. By this charter New Haven was annexed to Connecticut.

3. *Rule of Sir Edmund Andros*

In 1685 Sir Edmund Andros was appointed governor of all New England, and of New York and New Jersey. One main object of the English government for this action was the union of all the northern colonies, in order to be better prepared for any attack of the French from Canada. The plan or method of bringing about this union could not have been much worse. Andros was directed to seize the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island, but this he was unable to do. He abolished the legislature of Massachusetts and levied taxes and arrested men without due process of law. While his rule was very despotic and arbitrary, it should be remembered that the leaders of the Puritan party did all they could to anger him, even going so far as to oppose strongly the establishment of an Episcopal church at Boston. James II was just as despotic with his people in England as his governor was with them in New England. In 1688 James was forced to leave England, and William, Prince of Orange, became king. As soon as the people of Massachusetts heard of this they

arrested Andros and placed him in jail. Connecticut and Rhode Island re-established governments under their charters, and continued this form of government down to the time of the Revolution. New Hampshire from this on had a royal governor, but the people elected the lower branch of the Legislature, which was by far the more important part of the law-making body.

4. *Massachusetts and New Hampshire from 1689 to 1766*

Massachusetts hoped that the new king would give her back her beloved charter, but she was disappointed. She was granted a new charter which gave her the right to elect a legislature or law-making body, and which provided that no taxes could be levied except by this legislature. The people of Massachusetts, therefore, could not be taxed except by themselves, a right dear to all Englishmen, and one which the people of all the colonies were determined to have. The charter also provided that no man should be denied the right to vote or to take part in the government because of his religious ideas. Under the old charter the governor was elected by the people; but under the new charter he was appointed by the king. All laws passed by the legislature had to be sent to the king for his approval before they became effective. This was not so liberal a government as that enjoyed by the people of Rhode Island and Connecticut, but the people of Massachusetts had to live under it until the Revolution, when all the colonies became independent of England. As the new charter annexed the colony of Plymouth and the territory of Maine to the Massachusetts Bay Colony the people of these two places also lived under the government of this charter. From 1689 to 1776 Massachusetts and New Hampshire were governed by royal governors appointed by the English kings, and by a legislature elected by the people. During the greater part of this time the governors and the people were quarreling about taxes and laws. All

these quarrels caused the people to care less and less for the mother country and served to prepare them for complete separation from England.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(New England)

I

Why did King Henry VIII have himself declared the head of the Catholic Church in England? Did he wish to destroy or make many changes in the doctrines of the church? How did the Episcopal Church come to be established? Who were the Puritans? How did the Separatists differ from the Puritans? How were the Puritans and Separatists treated? Why did the Separatists go to Holland? Why did they wish to leave Holland and go to America? Why were they called Pilgrims? Did they intend to settle in Massachusetts? Describe the first year of the life of the Plymouth colony. What caused the Puritans to wish to leave England and come to America? How did the Puritans obtain land in America? What settlements were made by the Puritans in Massachusetts? Compare the growth of the Plymouth colony with that of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Describe the origin and growth of the Connecticut colony. Describe the origin and growth of the New Haven colony. How did the Connecticut and New Haven colonies become united? What caused the settlement of Rhode Island? Tell what you can about Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson. What was the character of the first settlements in New Hampshire and Maine?

II

Compare the object of the settlers of New England with that of the settlers of Virginia in coming to America. Did the Puritans establish religious liberty in their colonies? What kind of government did they establish? How was the life and government of the people affected by the fact that they came over in congregations, each congregation settling together? Who voted at the town meetings? Describe the government provided by the charters. Tell what you can about the beginning of representative government in New England. Compare this with the beginning of representative government in Virginia. Was it necessary in all the New England colonies that a man be a church member before he could vote? How did Connecticut differ from all the other New England colonies in her government? Who controlled the law-making department of government in each of the New England colonies? What caused the formation of the New England Confederacy? Why was Rhode Island not admitted to this Confederacy? Describe the organization of the Confederacy. Why was it not a strong union? Of what value was the Confederacy?

III

Why did the Indians not trouble the Pilgrims? Why were the Indians friendly to the English at first, and later unfriendly? Tell what you can about the Pequod war. How did the Puritans treat the Indians? Why were the Indians and the Puritans not able to get along well together? Tell what you can about King Philip's war. Compare this war with the Pequod war. What effect did King Philip's war have on the relations of the people of New England with the Indians?

IV

Why did King Charles I dislike the Puritans? For what causes had the Puritans banished people from Massachusetts? Describe briefly the overthrow of Charles I. How was New England treated by the English government while Cromwell and Parliament ruled? When Charles II became king, what demands did he make of the Massachusetts Bay Colony? Were these demands reasonable? Explain in full why the charter of this colony was annulled. Describe the rule of Governor Andros. Why did the king unite New England, New York and New Jersey under one governor? Describe the conditions which led to the overthrow of Andros. What were the most important provisions of the new charter granted to Massachusetts? How did the governments of Rhode Island and Connecticut differ from those of the other New England colonies? Describe in a general way the relations between the royal governors and the people. What effect did the quarrels between the royal governors and the people have on the relations of the colonies to England?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the religious conditions in England leading to the settlement of New England. Compare New England colonies with the southern colonies in respect to the object of their settlement and character of their settlers. Discuss the Puritan ideas of government as shown in the government established in New England. Compare the New England and southern colonies in respect to the power of the people in the government. Discuss the relations between the Indians and the settlers of New England. Discuss the annulling of the charter of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Compare the relations between the people and the royal governors in New England with those between the people and the royal governors in the southern colonies.

THE MIDDLE COLONIES

I New York

1. *Discovery and Settlement*

In 1609, Henry Hudson, an English sailor employed by a Dutch commercial company, discovered the river which now bears his name, and explored the country bordering it. The Dutch called the territory New Netherlands and immediately began to send settlers over to secure the valuable fur trade of the region. The first settlement was made on Manhattan Island in 1614 and other towns soon sprang up along the Hudson, on Long Island, and on Manhattan Island. In 1655 the territory now known as New Jersey and Delaware was taken by the Dutch and made part of their colony.

2. *Character of the Colonists*

While the territory was claimed and held by the Dutch, the settlers came from all parts of Europe. These first settlers came simply for trading, not for the purpose of making homes. In order to encourage permanent settlers, valuable grants of land along the Hudson were given to men bringing to New Netherlands fifty permanent settlers. These grants were called patroonships, and the men receiving them, patroons. This brought in many settlers, but more men of the better class came in later when cheap ownership of small holdings of land was promised.

3. *Government Under the Dutch*

While this colony was under the Dutch control the people had very little voice in the government. The governor was appointed by the company, and although he had a council to advise him, he really had all the power in his own hands. Peter Stuyvesant stands out as the ablest of

all the Dutch governors. His rule was arbitrary and he paid little attention to the rights of the people, but the wealth and population of the colony more than doubled under his administration.

4. *The Colony Under English Control*

New Netherlands by its position divided the English colonies into two parts, and for that reason, as well as on account of its commercial value, the English desired its possession. So in 1664 the English king, Charles II, sent over a small fleet and took possession of the entire colony. In 1673 the Dutch again obtained control of this territory, but only for one year. The English king granted this province to James, Duke of York and Albany, and the name of the colony was changed to New York. The Duke granted the southern part of the territory to two Englishmen as a separate province under the name of New Jersey.

5. *Under the Royal Governors*

When the province was given to the Duke of York, a charter was given the people, which was based on the New England charters, but did not give the people so many rights in the government. In 1685 James became King of England and New York thus became a royal province. From this time the government was carried on along the same lines as the other royal colonies, that is, with a governor and council appointed by the king and an assembly elected by the people. As in New England, there was a great deal of trouble between the legislature and the governor. The people never gained as much power in law-making as they did in New England or the southern colonies.

II NEW JERSEY

1. *Origin*

The real history of this colony begins in 1664 when the Duke of York granted the territory between New York

harbor and Delaware Bay to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, giving it the name New Jersey. Settlers came in from New York, New England and Europe, and the province grew steadily in population and wealth.

2. *Political History*

When the proprietors received the grant of New Jersey they established a liberal form of government with a governor and council appointed by themselves, and an assembly elected by the freemen. Owing to some trouble in managing the colony, Lord Berkeley sold his share to the Quakers, and the province was divided into East and West Jersey. The Quakers organized a more liberal government in the western part, while East Jersey was organized on the same lines as the whole province had been. In 1682 William Penn and some associates became the proprietors of East Jersey. Continual trouble between the province and the proprietors led the proprietors to give up their rights in 1702, and the two provinces were united and placed directly under control of the Crown.

III DELAWARE

The first colony of any importance in this territory was established by Sweden in 1638. Thirteen years later this territory was taken by the Dutch, and, with New Jersey, made a part of New Netherlands. When the English conquered the Dutch, Delaware remained a part of New York until 1682 when William Penn obtained a grant to it as a part of Pennsylvania. In 1702 Delaware organized a separate legislature and became a separate province, but remained under the governor of Pennsylvania.

IV PENNSYLVANIA

1. *Origin*

In 1681 Charles II granted a tract of land extending from the Delaware river westward and containing forty

thousand square miles, to William Penn, in payment of a debt owed by the Crown to his father. Penn's plan was to found a colony for the Quakers who were persecuted in England. As his colony had no sea coast, Penn bought the rights to Delaware and governed it as part of Pennsylvania. In 1702 Delaware was made a separate colony with a separate legislature, though it remained under the same governor as Pennsylvania.

2. *Settlement and Growth*

Penn put his plan before the people promising just government, religious freedom, protection of personal rights and cheap land. As a result, large numbers of Quakers from England, and settlers from all parts of Europe, especially Germany, came to this new territory at once. The growth of this colony was more rapid than that of any other American colony.

3. *Government*

When Charles II granted Pennsylvania to William Penn he placed some restrictions on his government, the most important being that all laws must be approved by the king, and that the king might tax the people of the colony directly. Penn established a very democratic form of government in the colony, the law-making power being given to a legislature of two houses, both of whose members were elected by the people. Penn acted as governor, but did not retain much power. Later he took away some of the power given the people.

4. *Province Under Deputy Governors*

When Penn left the colony in 1701 he made a new constitution by which the Assembly elected by the people had the power to make all the laws, and the governor and council appointed by the proprietor were merely advisory.

The colony was left in charge of a deputy governor and secretary, and the government was carried on in this way until the Revolution.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(The Middle Colonies)

I

For what object did settlers first come to New York? Compare the settlement of New York with the settlement of Virginia and of Massachusetts. Why was New York at first called New Netherlands? Describe the character of the early settlers. Describe the method of colonizing this territory. Describe the government of New York by the Dutch. Tell what you can of the work of Peter Stuyvesant. How did New Netherlands come under English control? What conditions caused New York to become a royal province? Compare the government of New York under the English with that under the Dutch. How did the people get along with the royal governors?

II

Describe the origin of New Jersey. What kind of government was established in this colony by the proprietors? Why was the colony divided? Was the settlement of the Quakers in East Jersey important? Why was New Jersey made a royal province?

III

Tell what you can of the origin and settlement of Delaware.

IV

Tell all you can about William Penn and give his reasons for founding a colony in America. Describe the settlement of Pennsylvania. Why did Penn buy the rights to Delaware? What was the Mason and Dixon line? What was the character of the settlers of Pennsylvania? How did the growth of Pennsylvania compare with that of the other colonies? Why was this? Describe the government established by Penn. Compare the rights of the people in the government of this colony with their rights in the government of the other colonies. Describe the government of the province under the deputy-governors.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the causes leading to the settlement of each of the middle colonies and compare them with the causes of the settlement of New England and the southern colonies. Compare each of the middle colonies with the New England and southern colonies in respect to government, bringing out the powers of the people in the government of each. Compare the middle with the southern and New England colonies in respect to the character of their settlers. Compare the growth of the middle colonies with the growth of the New England and the southern colonies.

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

THE FRENCH IN NORTH AMERICA

I FRENCH EXPLORATIONS AND SETTLEMENTS
Mc. 60–65; M. 28, 126–130; F. 50–54, 155–159

II CONTRAST OF FRENCH AND ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS
M. 131; T. 89–90

III RELATIONS OF THE FRENCH WITH THE INDIANS

1. *Value of Indian Friendship*
Mc. 70–71; F. 54

2. *Enmity of the Iroquois*
Mc. 72–73; F. 54–55

IV EARLY CONFLICT BETWEEN FRENCH AND ENGLISH

1. *Conditions Making Conflict Inevitable*
Mc. 76; F. 159–160

2. *Conditions Leading to English Success*
(To be discussed by the teacher)

3. *King William's, Queen Anne's and King George's Wars, 1689-1748*
Mc. 76–81; T. 85–87; M. 131–134; F. 161–168

V THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, 1754-1763

1. *Beginnings*

(a) Washington's First and Only Surrender, 1754
Mc. 81–86; T. 90–92; M. 135–138; F. 168–169

(b) Braddock's Defeat, 1755
Mc. 87–88; H. H. 138–141; T. 94–95; M. 138–139; F. 170

(c) Other English Reverses, 1754-1758
Mc. 88; T. 96; F. 172

2. *The War Under Pitt's Direction, 1758-1763*

   (a) Pitt's Able and Vigorous War Policy
   Mc. 89; T. 97; M. 139; F. 170–172

   (b) English Victories, 1758-1760
   Mc. 89–90; H. H. 146–150; T. 97–100; M. 139–140; F. 173–174

3. *Treaty of Peace: Results of the War*
   Mc. 90–91; T. 100–101; M. 141–142; F. 174–175

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

THE FRENCH IN NORTH AMERICA

I French Explorations and Settlements

The French explored the Mississippi Valley and the territory north of the Great Lakes and the English colonies. Cartier and Champlain were the first important explorers of the country along the St. Lawrence. Champlain established several permanent settlements, among them being Port Royal, Quebec and Montreal. From these early settlements made between 1603 and 1612, later explorers pushed on through the region of the Great Lakes and discovered and explored the Mississippi river and valley. Joliet, Marquette and La Salle were the foremost explorers of the Mississippi river and its tributaries, La Salle giving the name Louisiana to this territory. Thus in 1682 the French claims in America included all the territory from the Appalachian to the Rocky Mountains, the region of the Great Lakes, and the country north of the English colonies, including Nova Scotia and Newfoundland.

II Contrast of French and English Settlements

The difference between the French and the English colonies was due largely to the difference in the purpose and manner of settlement. The English came to make homes, while the French came for the money to be gained from the fisheries and the fur trade; to convert the Indians; and to gain more territory for France. Consequently the English built up strong and prosperous farming communities along the coast, while the French spread their claims over as much territory as possible, but made few permanent settlements, most of those made being mere military trading posts. Thus while the territory occupied by the English colonies was small as compared with that claimed by France, the population of the

English colonies by 1750 had reached almost two millions while the total French population in North America was less than one hundred thousand.

III Relations of the French with the Indians

1. *Value of Indian Friendship*

As the French were very anxious to secure the fur trade, and as the Indians controlled most of this, it was necessary for the French to be on friendly terms with them. The French were very successful in winning this friendship, and this was the real source of their power. Except in the case of the Iroquois the French were much more successful in dealing with the Indians than were the English.

2. *Enmity of the Iroquois*

By aiding the Algonquins in a battle against another tribe, the French early gained the bitter hatred of the Iroquois or Five Nations, the most powerful Indian confederacy in North America. As the Iroquois occupied the territory between the St. Lawrence country and the English colonies, the French were compelled to move westward in their advance, and were kept from occupying New York, and from coming in contact with the English. This gave the English time to develop and gather strength for the coming contest.

IV Early Conflict Between French and English

1. *Conditions Making Conflict Inevitable*

When the English colonists had settled up most of the territory east of the Appalachian Mountains it was but natural that they should pass over these mountains into the Ohio Valley in search of new farming lands. When they did this it meant that the two nations must fight. If the English occupied this valley the French in Canada

would be separated from those in the southern part of the Mississippi valley, and thus the French plans for a great Empire in America would be overthrown.

2. *Conditions Leading to English Success*

The permanent character of the English colonies, and the greater size of the English population made it impossible for the French to check the steady advance of the English.

3. *King William's, Queen Anne's and King George's Wars, 1689-1748*

These three wars were caused by trouble between France and England in Europe. It was but natural that the conflict should extend to the French and English colonies in America. But the results of these wars in America were not important. In each war the French and their Indian allies destroyed some English settlements on the frontier, and massacred the settlers. All that the English in America gained was Nova Scotia and some military training. During King George's War they captured Louisburg, an important military post, but by the treaty at the close of the war it was returned to France. The French secured no new territory.

V The French and Indian War, 1754-1763

The fourth and last war between the French and English in the New World began, not in Europe, as had the other three, but in America. The first battle of this war was fought in 1754. This was two years before war was formally declared between France and England, and during this time several battles had been fought. In 1756 the war between the French and English in America became a part of one of the greatest wars of modern times. England and Frederick the Great of Prussia united against France, Spain, Austria, and Russia. In Europe this war was known as the Seven

Years' War, and lasted from 1756 to 1763. In America it was known as the French and Indian War and lasted from 1754 to 1763. In a most heroic struggle, Frederick the Great, aided by England, was a match for his combined enemies in Europe and by the treaty signed in 1763 by all the nations engaged in the war, Prussia did not lose a foot of territory. The war was most disastrous to France. The treaty which closed it marked the temporary end of French Colonial Empire, but France has since secured some valuable colonial possessions. She lost all her possessions in North America, and nearly all of those in India. England secured the greater part of the territory that France lost, and gained more by the the war than any other nation.

1. *Beginnings*

(a) Washington's First and Only Surrender, 1754

The passing of English settlers over into the Ohio valley caused the French to construct a series of forts from Lake Erie to the site of the present city of Pittsburg. A small force under command of Washington was sent against Fort Duquesne, the last of these forts built, but was defeated by a much larger force of the French and their Indian allies, and was forced to surrender. This was Washington's first and only surrender.

(b) Braddock's Defeat, 1755

After Washington's defeat England sent over a thousand soldiers under General Braddock to aid the colonies. This army was increased by the colonies, and with a force of about twenty-two hundred, Braddock marched from Virginia against Fort Duquesne. He was surprised on the march by a force of French and Indians from the fort, and defeated with great loss. This defeat was largely due to Braddock's ignorance of frontier methods of fighting.

(c) Other English Reverses, 1754-1758

Expeditions sent by the colonies against Niagara, Crown Point and Ticonderoga were unsuccessful, and during the next two years the important forts of Oswego and William Henry were captured by the French.

2. *The War Under Pitt's Direction, 1758-1763*

(a) Pitt's Able and Vigorous War Policy

William Pitt became Prime Minister of England in 1757, with full control of military operations. He was the greatest war minister England has ever had. He at once reorganized the English army, removing the incompetent officers and replacing them with men of ability. He raised a force of fifty thousand soldiers for the war in America, half of which was furnished by England and half by the colonies, and placed it under competent generals.

(b) English Victories, 1758-1760

From the time Pitt came into power the English were almost uniformly successful. Three of the most important French forts, Duquesne, Frontenac, and Louisburg, were captured by the English in 1758. The capture of Quebec and of Montreal in 1759 and 1760, completed the overthrow of the French in America.

3. *Treaty of Peace: Results of the War*

Although the last battle of the French and Indian War was in 1760, the treaty of peace was not signed until the end of the Seven Years' War in 1763. Among other things, this treaty gave to England all the territory east of the Mississippi except the island on which New Orleans stands. To Spain was given this island and all the territory west of the great river. France retained nothing in North America except two small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The results of the war made it plain that the

English language and English institutions should be supreme in North America. The English colonies could now develop in peace so far as any foreign nation was concerned. The war brought about conditions which helped to bring on the Revolution, and the training which the colonists received in this contest with the French prepared them for the conflict with the Mother country.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(The French in North America)

I

Tell what you can of the explorations and settlements made by Cartier and Champlain. Why is Champlain called the "Father of New France"? What part of the continent was explored by Joliet and Marquette? Discuss La Salle's explorations. Draw a map showing the routes of these explorers and the territory claimed by France by virtue of these explorations. Describe the manner in which the explorers took possession of the country for France.

II

How did the French and English colonies differ in the purpose of their settlements? How did this affect the character of the settlements of the two nations? Compare the English and French colonies in respect to location, extent, and size of population. What caused the great difference in population?

III

Why did the French wish to be friendly with the Indians? How did they gain the friendship of the Indians? Why were the English less dependent on the Indians than were the French? How did the French make enemies of the Iroquois? How did this affect the growth of the French colonies? How did the friendship of the Iroquois for the English affect the growth of the English colonies?

IV

How did the French occupy the territory which they claimed? Why were the English and the French colonists sure to come into conflict in North America? Why was it natural that the English should pass over the Alleghany mountains into the Ohio valley? Why did the French wish to prevent this? Why were the French unable to check the westward advance of the English? Tell what you can about King William's War. About Queen Anne's War. About King George's War.

V

Tell what you can of the Seven Years' War in Europe. How was the French and Indian War in America connected with the Seven Years' War in Europe? Why did the French build a series of forts from Lake Erie to the site of the present city of Pittsburg? Why did the English object to this? Tell all you can about Washington's expedition against Fort Duquesne. What was the effect of Washington's defeat on the Indians in the Ohio valley? What was its effect on the English? Why were the English colonists so slow in preparing for war? Tell what you can of Braddock's expedition, discussing the causes of its defeat. Describe the English expeditions against Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point. What was the effect of these defeats on the English? Tell what you can of Montcalm and his work. Tell all you can of William Pitt and his war policy. Describe the taking of Louisburg. How did the capture of Louisburg aid the English? Describe fully the capture of Quebec. Compare the French General Montcalm with the English general Wolf in character, ability and courage. Draw a map showing all the changes in territory in America made by this war. What was the effect of the war on the history of America? What was the direct effect on the English colonists?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Compare the French and English settlements in location, extent, purpose of settlement, character, and population. Discuss the relations of the French with the Indians. Compare the attitude of the French toward the Indians with that of the English. Discuss the enmity of the Iroquois to the French and its effect on colonial history. Describe the conditions which made war between the French and English inevitable. Discuss the conditions leading to English success in this struggle. Discuss in a general way King William's, Queen Anne's, and King George's Wars. Discuss the Seven Years' War in Europe and its connection with the French and Indian War in America. Discuss the scope of the French and Indian War. Describe the work of Washington in this war. Discuss the work of Pitt. Discuss the results of the war, including territorial changes and political effects.

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

INSTITUTIONAL LIFE IN THE COLONIES

It is very important that the subject of institutional life in the Colonies receive careful treatment. Unfortunately the text-books contain very little material on this subject. It is necessary, therefore, that the teacher in a number of talks discuss the entire subject very carefully, and have the pupils take notes. The discussions which follow have been made quite full in order to furnish material for these discussions.

A INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS

I Commercial Industries

1. *The Southern Colonies*

(a) Products

Mc. 104; H. I, 63–64, 156–159; T. 40–44; M. 58–59, 116–117, 124; F. 70–71, 129, 149–150

(b) Plantations

1. Growth

Mc. 104; F. 71

2. Relation to Growth of Cities

Mc. 104; F. 76

3. Relation to Growth of Slavery

Mc. 105; M. 61; F. 71

(c) Relation of Slavery to Industrial Conditions

(To be discussed by the teacher)

H. I, 158–159

2. *New England*

(a) Occupations

1. Agriculture

Mc. 101–102; M. 86; F. 106

2. Manufactures
   Mc. 98–99; T. 80–81; M. 97

3. Fisheries
   Mc. 101; M. 86

4. Commerce
   Mc. 102; H. I, 139–140; H. II, 50–51, 59–60; M. 86; F. 95

(b) Relation of Industrial Conditions to Slavery
   (To be discussed by the teacher)
   F. 313

3. *The Middle Colonies*

(a) Occupations

1. Agriculture
   Mc. 103; H. I, 147, 159–161

2. Manufactures
   Mc. 103; M. 76

3. Commerce
   Mc. 103; H. II, 37–39

(b) Relation of Industrial Conditions to Slavery
   (To be discussed by the teacher)

II Professional Life
(To be discussed by the teacher)

1. *The Ministry*
   T. 32–33; M. 149; F. 106

2. *Medicine*

3. *Law*

B SOCIAL CONDITIONS
Mc. 93–94, 100; H. I, 67–70, 160; T. 83–84; M. 147–148

I The Southern Colonies

1. *Classes of Society*

(a) The Negro Slave
Mc. 105; H. I, 157–159; H. II, 34–35; M. 61

(b) Indented Servants
Mc. 97–98, 105; H. I, 175; T. 42; M. 61–62; F. 71–72

(c) The Middle and Upper Classes
H. I, 149–152; M. 146–147

2. *Dress and Amusements*
H. I, 152, 224–229; H. II, 19–26; T. 81; M. 147–148

II New England

1. *Classes of Society*
(To be discussed by the teacher)

(a) Slaves
(b) Indented Servants
(c) The Middle and Upper Classes

2. *Social Distinctions*
(To be discussed by the teacher)

3. *Dress and Amusements*
H. I, 152–155, 180–182, 192–194; H. II, 26–27, 39–42, 211–212; T. 81

III The Middle Colonies

1. *Classes of Society*
(To be discussed by the teacher)

(a) Slaves

(b) Indented Servants
H. I, 174, 184, 188–191; H. II, 52–55

(c) The Middle Class

(d) The Upper Class

Mc. 38; T. 105; M. 70–71; F. 131

2. *Dress and Amusements*

H. II, 17–19, 184, 187

C GOVERNMENT

(To be discussed by the teacher)

I Local Government

1. *The County*

2. *The Township*

M. 81; F. 94

3. *The Parish*

F. 94

II Colonial and State Government

(To be discussed by the teacher)

1. *State Government*

(a) Legislative Department

(b) Executive Department

(c) Judicial Department

2. *Colonial Government—Departments*

(a) Legislative Department

Mc. 106, 33, 35, 46, 57; H. II, 61; T. 104, 22, 31–32, 43; M. 60, 85–86, 105; F. 72, 106–107, 134, 140

(b) Executive Department

Mc. 106–107; H. II, 61; T. 31; M. 64–66, 76, 95, 105, 120; F. 75–78, 114–116, 135–136

(c) Judicial Department

3. *Colonial Government—Classes*

(a) Charter Government
Mc. 105; T. 104–105

(b) Proprietary Government
Mc. 105–106; T. 104; F. 126

(c) Royal Government
Mc. 106–107; T. 105

III National Government
(To be discussed by the teacher)

IV Relation of Colonial Government to Present State Government
(To be discussed by the teacher)

D RELIGION: GROWTH OF RELIGIOUS LIBERTY

I Religious Liberty at the Present Time
(To be discussed by the teacher)

II Religious Persecution in Europe
Mc. 36, 41, 47, 49; M. 76–77; F. 87

III Religious Persecution in the Colonies
Mc. 36, 48; T. 75–78; M. 62, 83, 86–88, 91–93, 94, 104–107; F. 93, 98–99, 107–108, 128

IV Churches Have Not Been Responsible for Religious Persecution
(To be discussed by the teacher)

V Religious Liberty in the United States: Causes of Its Growth
(To be discussed by the teacher)

E EDUCATION

I Comparison of Colonial Schools with Those of the Present Time
(To be discussed by the teacher)

II Condition of Schools in England
(To be discussed by the teacher)

III The Southern Colonies
H. I, 216–217, 224–226; T. 82; M. 62; F. 75

IV New England
H. I, 109–111, 206–210, 214–216, 232–233; T. 81–83; M. 88–89, 149; F. 96

V The Middle Colonies
H. I, 218–224; M. 149–150

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

INSTITUTIONAL LIFE IN THE COLONIES

The Five Institutions

There exist among the people of every nation, or state, or city, or community, five organizations or institutions. They are Business, or Industrial Life; Society, or Social Life; the State, or Government; the Church, or Religion; and the School, or Education. These five institutions, in some form or another, may always be found among savages as well as among civilized peoples. All that any community, or the individuals of any community, can think or do, must be thought or done along one or more of these lines. They include the entire life and work of every person and community. Among civilized people, these five institutions are distinctly and plainly marked, and every person bears some relation to each of them. The nature of his work in relation to one or more of these institutions determines to what extent he is useful or harmful to the community, state, or nation in which he lives. The active, useful, intelligent citizen follows some business or occupation successfully; he contributes to the happiness and social life of the people in whose society he lives; he takes an active interest in some organization or church that advocates his views on religion; and he interests himself in the educational affairs of his community. What is true of an individual in this respect, is true also of a nation. It therefore becomes very important in studying the history of a nation, to study carefully its institutional life which consists of these five institutions. A nation should be judged not so much by the battles which it has fought, or by the territory which it owns, as by the condition of its institutions. So far we have been studying the colonies mainly as related to their political history, or the institution of government, which includes among other things, the wars fought and the territory secured. While it is of importance to learn about the institution of government, or the political history of a nation, it is of even more importance to learn about the other four institutions which

make up the business, the social, the religious, and the educational life of the people. We shall now study the condition of these four institutions in the colonies, and review the institution of government.

Effect of Topography, Climate, and Soil on the History of the United States

In the study of the growth and development of the nation the difference in topography, climate and soil of the different sections deserves the most careful consideration. It was the fundamental cause of the American Civil War. This difference determined to a certain extent that the South should be, until after the Civil War, an almost strictly agricultural country; that the land should be divided into large plantations; that almost the entire time and energy of the southern people should be devoted to raising tobacco, rice, indigo and cotton; and that the labor of the South should be performed by negro slaves. It also determined to a certain extent that the people of the northern colonies should devote a large part of their time and energy to commerce and manufacturing; that the agricultural land should be divided into a large number of small farms; that many different kinds of agricultural products should be raised; and that the labor of the North should be performed by freemen instead of by slaves. All these facts are of importance and are fundamental, and should be borne in mind constantly. They became plainer and plainer as the history of the colonies and nation developed. This difference between the topography, climate and soil of the North and South produced different industrial, social, and political conditions, which became more and more unlike and drifted farther and farther apart until brought together, welded, and made one by the American Civil War.

Comparison of the Topography, Climate and Soil of the Southern, Middle and New England Colonies

The topography, climate and soil of the southern colonies and of New England were quite different. By far the largest part

of the country in the southern colonies and in all the southern states that border on the Gulf of Mexico is level, in fact, almost flat. This country is drained by broad rivers which flow into the sea or into the Gulf. The soil is naturally very rich; the rainfall is abundant; the climate in the summer time is very hot and with the exception of Maryland and the northern part of Virginia, mild and pleasant in the winter time. The surface of New England is made up largely of hills and mountains, and is drained by short rapid rivers. The soil naturally is not very fertile, and the climate in the winter is cold and severe. The broad fertile plains of the South, and the hills, mountains, and small valleys of New England were alike all covered with a great, dense forest, but as regards topography, climate and soil, the two sections are distinctly different. The conditions of the topography, climate and soil of the middle colonies, which consisted of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware, were about midway between those of the southern colonies on the one hand and of New England on the other. The soil, unlike that of New England and like that of the southern colonies, was rich. The rainfall was abundant, and this was also true of both the other sections. The climate was not so cold as that of New England and not so mild and pleasant as that of the southern colonies. The surface of the land was not divided into a large number of small valleys as was the case in New England, neither did it consist of broad, extensive plains as was the case in the southern colonies.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS

The institution affected most directly by topography, climate and soil is Business, or Industrial life; and it therefore will be the first institution discussed. Farming; engaging in some profession, as law, medicine, or the ministry; mining; manufacturing; the carrying on of trade or commerce; and all other things which men do to make a living, comprise the institution which is called Business, or Industrial life. In order to add clearness to the treatment, the professions of law, medicine, and the ministry

will be treated under the sub-head—Professional Life in the Colonies. The other factors of Industrial life in the colonies will be treated under the sub-head—Commercial Industries. In treating the "Commercial Industries," each of three groups of colonies will be taken up separately because the conditions of each group differ from those in the other two groups, and this difference had an important effect on some of the other institutions.

I Commercial Industries

1. *The Southern Colonies*

(a) Products

Tobacco is and has been from early colonial times one of the chief southern products. After its discovery by the first settlers of Virginia it gained rapidly in popularity in England and raising tobacco soon became the chief occupation of the colonists of Virginia and Maryland. In fact the whole life of these two colonies centered around its production. It was used as money. A man's wealth was counted in pounds of tobacco. Laws were made regulating its production and the quality exported. Rice, indigo and cotton were the principal products of North and South Carolina and Georgia. These three products were as important in the three most southern colonies as was tobacco in Virginia and Maryland, and, like tobacco, they caused the growth of large plantations. Rice was the most important of these products, especially in South Carolina, which led in its production. Comparatively little cotton was raised until after the Revolution and the invention of the cotton gin. The wealth of the southern colonies came largely from the exportation of tobacco, rice and indigo. Wheat, hogs and cattle were also raised, and resin and turpentine produced.

1. *The Southern Colonies*

(b) Plantations

1. Growth

The climate and soil of the southern colonies were well suited to the extensive production of a few staples and the broad, flat plains encouraged the growth of large plantations under the control of one man.

2. Relation to Growth of Cities

The large number of rivers made it easy for most of the plantations to maintain their own warehouses. The vessels that carried the exports called at these warehouses on the different plantations along the rivers, and brought the things needed by the planter, but which were not produced on his plantation. This custom was the main reason why there were no large cities in the southern colonies. There was no inducement for towns to grow.

3. Relation to Growth of Slavery

The production of tobacco, rice, indigo and cotton required a large amount of labor. Slave labor was cheap and well suited to this kind of work, while white labor was extremely hard to obtain. The planter soon came to depend almost entirely on the negro slave for labor, and as the plantations increased in size and number, the demand for slave labor became more and more urgent, and the number of slaves increased rapidly.

(c) Relation of Slavery to Industrial Conditions

Negro slavery caused the southern people to look upon labor as degrading, and this caused immigrants from Europe who wished to work for wages until they secured enough money to engage in business for themselves, to avoid the South and to settle in the North. As slave labor was suited only to agriculture and housework, the lack of skilled white labor prevented the de-

velopment of manufacturing or commerce in the South. This tended to make the South settle down still more firmly to plantation life and to the production of a few great staples. Southern life was being moulded more and more closely around the institution of slavery, just as northern life would have been had conditions there made slave labor as profitable as it was in the South.

2. *New England*

(a) Occupations

1. Agriculture

The division of the country into small valleys prevented the growth of large plantations in New England, and the climate and soil prevented the extensive production of any one staple. It was hard for any New England colony to raise more food than it required for its own use, but the variety of products was much greater than in the southern colonies. These conditions made it almost impossible for New England to become wealthy and prosperous from farming, and the people therefore devoted a large part of their time and energy to fishing, commerce and manufacturing.

2. Manufactures

Although the colonial policy of England hampered the growth of manufacturing, many things were made and the foundation was laid for the great manufacturing establishments that sprang up after the Revolution. Shops, where every form of trade was plied, lined the streets of the towns. The farmer made most of his tools and furniture and his wife spun the flax or wool, wove the cloth and made the clothing. The swift running rivers furnished the power for thousands of saw mills and grist mills.

3. Fisheries

One great source of wealth was the fisheries, of which the whale and cod were especially profitable. Large quantities of fish and fish oil were exported.

4. Commerce

The New England colonists gave a great deal of attention to commerce. New England built the best ships in the world. She built all her own vessels and many for other nations. She carried nearly all her exports and imports in her own ships, and her ships became an important factor in the commerce of the West Indies and of Europe. In spite of her poor soil, and the fact that her imports were much larger than her exports, the wealth from her extensive commerce, together with the industry of her people, made New England wealthy, and caused the growth of many prosperous towns and cities.

(b) Relation of Industrial Conditions to Slavery

In New England natural conditions forced the people into varied occupations in which slave labor could not be used with profit. Slavery, therefore, was gradually abolished and free labor made the basis of industrial life. There was no important class of people in New England that opposed slavery on moral grounds. Its growth was controlled by industrial conditions which were due to topography, climate and soil.

3. *The Middle Colonies*

(a) Occupations

1. Agriculture

Nearly all kinds of farm products were raised in the middle colonies. The fact that the climate and soil were suited to many products tended to prevent the growth of large plantations and the extensive produc-

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tion of only a few staples. Farm produce and cattle were raised and sold in large quantities.

2. Manufactures

Manufacturing was carried on to considerable extent. While there were no large manufacturing establishments, the beginnings were being made. In New York cloth and glass were manufactured and saw mills and grist mills were numerous. In Pennsylvania clothing was made and iron ore was mined and exported. Ships were built at Philadelphia, and the grist mills of Pennsylvania made into flour much of the wheat raised in Maryland and Virginia.

3. Commerce

Philadelphia and New York were two of the three leading commercial cities of the colonies. Their ships carried the produce of the colonies to nearly all the civilized nations of the world and brought back goods in return.

(b) Relation of Industrial Conditions to Slavery

Industrial conditions in the middle colonies made slavery of more value than in New England, but of much less value than in the South. Therefore the number of slaves was smaller than in the southern colonies and larger than in New England.

II Professional Life

2. *The Ministry*

The ministry was the only one of the three learned professions that held in the colonies anything like the high position they hold today. In New England especially the ministers were men of fine character, good education, and strong influence. They were the leaders of the people, not only in religion, but in education, literature and even in law making. In later years they lost much of their influ-

ence in the government, but retained their leadership in other respects. In the middle colonies also the ministers ranked high. They were able and energetic, and exerted great influence on the life of the people by establishing schools and by improving moral conditions. No one church was so powerful as was the Congregational church of the Puritans in New England, and hence the ministers did not have so much influence in government affairs. In most of the southern colonies the Episcopal Church was the state church, and it was supported by public taxes. As the ministers received their salaries whether they performed their duties or not, and as many of them were unfit for their work, they exerted much less influence for good than the ministers in the other colonies. After the Revolution, when the revenue from public taxes was taken away from the Episcopal Church, it secured a much abler class of ministers and they became a positive factor for good in the community. The ministers of the other churches in the South were able men and tried to establish schools, but without success.

2. *Medicine*

As has been stated before, medicine as a profession amounted to but very little in the colonies, especially before 1750. This profession developed earliest and most rapidly in Pennsylvania and in this respect Massachusetts came next. From the very first in Pennsylvania there were some physicians who had secured their educations in the universities of England and were well qualified to practice medicine. These did all they could to advance the profession. In 1734 the first medical work in the colonies was produced. This was written by Dr. Cadwalder from London, who later gave a course of lectures on anatomy and physiology, and in 1750 became one of the first physicians of the hospital in Philadelphia. In 1760 Dr. Sheppen and Dr. Morgan established in Philadelphia a medical college

which five years later became a part of the University of Pennsylvania. There were fewer quacks in Pennsylvania than in any of the other colonies. In New England, and especially in the southern colonies, druggists and barbers often practiced medicine and surgery along with their regular occupations, and this was the main reason why the people had so little respect for the medical profession. There were but few good doctors in the southern colonies,—fewer than in New England. Many of the ministers of early New England had studied medicine before leaving England. They frequently acted as doctors and were better than most of those engaged in the profession. After these early ministers died the profession for a time fell into the hands of quacks who knew little about medicine. But the ability of the doctors soon improved and the profession became more and more respected. Just before the Revolution there were many able physicians in New England and they were highly respected. New England, however, was behind Pennsylvania in the matter of hospitals and medical schools.

3. *Law*

The profession of law was of more importance in New England and Pennsylvania than in any of the other colonies just as was the case with the profession of medicine. Virginia, however, just before the Revolution, had as many able lawyers as New England and more than Pennsylvania or any of the other colonies. For a long time in New England, and for a longer time in Virginia, there were so few able lawyers, that the profession could hardly be said to exist at all. In Pennsylvania, on the other hand, there were a number of fairly good lawyers from the very first and the profession was held in high esteem, which was not the case in any of the other colonies. But about 1750 the profession of law in New England was represented by a large number of very able lawyers, and a little later the same was true in Virginia. Among the New

England lawyers at this time were John Adams, Samuel Quincy, Samuel Gridley and James Otis; among those in Virginia were Thomas Jefferson, Patrick Henry and George Mason. These men were just in time to prepare the colonies for, and to guide them through, the Revolutionary War; and to help make, and to help put into effect, the present Constitution of the United States. Many of them made a world-wide reputation. To their wisdom and good common sense the people of the United States owe a great debt of gratitude.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Industrial Conditions)

What is meant by the institutional life of a nation? Show by illustrations how the life of every citizen is related to each of the five institutions. Why should a nation be judged largely by the condition of its institutions? Why are topography, climate and soil important influences in history? Describe the topography, climate and soil of the southern colonies. Of New England. Of the middle colonies. Show how these influences determined that the South should be almost entirely agricultural and should have slave labor. Show how they determined that the North should develop various industries and should have free labor. How did these differences affect the history of the nation?

I

Describe fully what industrial life includes. Why do topography, climate and soil affect industrial life more than any other of the institutions? What were the leading southern products, and how did they affect the growth of large plantations? Tell all you can about the culture of tobacco in the southern colonies. Why were laws made regulating its production and the quality exported? How did topography, climate and soil encourage the growth of large plantations in the South? Discuss the effect of large plantations upon the growth of cities. How did the large plantations affect the growth of slavery? Why were there few free laborers in the South? How did the lack of free labor affect the growth of manufactures, commerce and similar industries?

Why were there no large plantations in New England? Why did the farmers of New England raise a great variety of products instead of a few staples as did the planters of the South? What caused the people of New England to engage in other occupations besides farming? Describe the manufactures of New England. Tell what you can of the fisheries of

New England. Discuss the conditions of trade and commerce in New England. Why was there little slavery in New England? If, instead of a hilly country, poor soil, and cold winters, New England had had a warm, pleasant climate, and had consisted of broad fertile plains, what would have been the effect upon industrial life?

Describe the farming conditions in the middle colonies. Compare them with those in the southern colonies and in New England. Describe the manufactures of the middle colonies. Why did England try to prevent the growth of manufactures in the colonies? How did this affect the colonies? Tell what you can of the commerce of Philadelphia and New York. What was the effect of industrial conditions in the middle colonies on slavery? Compare this effect with the effect of these conditions on slavery in New England and in the southern colonies.

Describe the character and position of the ministers of New England. Why were the ministers of so much more importance and influence in New England than in any of the other colonies? In what way and why did the ministers of New England lose much of their influence after the colonies became royal provinces? Describe the character and work of the ministers of the middle colonies. What is a State or Established church? Is it good policy to have a church supported by public taxes? What was the character of the Episcopal ministers of the southern colonies? Why did they have less ability and influence than the ministers of the other colonies or of the other churches in the South?

What was the general condition of the medical profession in the colonies? Tell what you can of this profession in Pennsylvania, noting the ability of the doctors, the medical schools and the hospitals. What can you say of the profession of law in the colonies? What change was there in the condition of this profession just before the Revolution? Compare the southern colonies with the middle colonies and New England in respect to the character and ability of their lawyers.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

What is meant by the institutional life of a nation? Show by illustrations how the life of every citizen is related to each of the five institutions. Why are topography, climate and soil important influences in history? Discuss the topography, climate and soil of the South and their effect upon the industrial life of the southern colonies. Discuss the topography, climate and soil of the middle colonies and New England and their effect upon the industrial life of these sections. Discuss the effect of differences in the topography, climate and soil of the northern and southern sections of the country upon the history of the nation. Discuss the causes of the growth of large plantations in the South. Discuss the relation of the plantation system to the growth of slavery and to the

growth of cities. Discuss the effect of slavery on industrial conditions in the South. Compare the industrial conditions of New England with those of the southern colonies and discuss the cause of difference. Discuss the commercial industries of the middle colonies. Discuss the conditions which tended to the growth of slavery in the South and to its abolition in the North. Show the effect of this upon the industrial and political life of the nation. Discuss the character and position of the ministers in the colonies, comparing those of different sections of the country. Discuss the condition of the medical profession in the colonies. Tell what you can of the profession of law in the colonies.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS

The amusements of people, the social relations among the various classes of society, treatment of neighbors, customs of dress, daily manner of speaking and acting toward others, and all other things which interest or amuse men in a social way, constitute the social life of a people. Many of these social factors are closely related to industrial conditions. The social conditions in the southern colonies, in New England, and in the middle colonies, differed, and this difference was due largely to the difference in the industrial conditions in these groups of colonies. In fact, the more closely the history of any nation is studied, the plainer it becomes that its five institutions are closely related. The social conditions of a nation are closely related to each of its other four institutions,—business, government, religion and education. Therefore, when studying any one of the five institutions in any nation, it is of importance to understand the relation of that institution to each of the other four.

At the present time it is not easy to realize how the people in the colonies lived, dressed, and amused themselves. This is due largely to the difference between the conditions which existed in the colonies and those which exist at the present time. It therefore becomes necessary to note carefully some of the conditions which made the social life in the colonies differ so much from the social life of today. Among the more important conditions that affected social life in the colonies were the newness of the country, the poor means of transportation and communication and, in the southern colonies, the large plantations and mode of farming. The people of the colonies lived in the edge of a mighty forest that covered the entire country. At times this forest must have seemed to the lonely settlers as vast as the sea and as silent as death. They did not know how far this great forest extended, or what wild animals or races of men it contained. This life in the edge of a great, silent, and unexplored forest, and on the edge of the sea, affected the customs and habits of the people. The effect of this solitude on the lives of the southern people was emphasized by the almost total lack of cities and towns, and by

the nature of plantation life. Nearly all the people lived on plantations which were usually far apart. This caused the people on the plantations to visit each other less frequently than they would have done had they lived in cities or close together on small farms. The poor means of transportation and communication in colonial times tended to make the life of the settlers still more lonely. The great improvements in modes of travel and communication since then have had a profound effect on social conditions. At the present time people, while eating breakfast, can read in their morning paper about all the important things that have taken place up to midnight of the day before, in all parts of the world reached by the telegraph. Often a new style of dress, or a new invention of some kind, will be used in many parts of the world within a few months after it is first made. It was quite different in the colonies. There were no railroads, or telegraphs, or telephones in the world at that time. People could not travel on the land except by walking, riding or driving. All mail and news had to be carried by the same means, and it should be remembered that there were few roads then and that most of these were usually in a very bad condition. If Boston had burned, it would have been five or six days before the news would have reached New York and many more days before the people in Virginia would have heard of it. This slow means of travel and communication made the life in the colonies, especially in the southern colonies, much more isolated and lonely than it would have been had the railroads and telegraphs existed. It also affected the customs and habits of the people by preventing them from becoming acquainted readily with the customs and habits of others. In studying the social conditions of the colonies it is well to remember all these other conditions which helped to make the social conditions of that time so different from those of today.

I The Southern Colonies

1. *Classes of Society*

At the time of the Revolution the total population of the southern colonies was about thirteen hundred fifty thous-

and. Of this number about six hundred twenty thousand were negro slaves. As a whole the people of the southern colonies consisted of four classes — the negro slave, the white servants, the middle class, and the upper class. The middle class which consisted of those who owned the smaller farms and plantations, shaded gradually into the upper class, which consisted of those who owned the larger plantations. In the three most southern colonies there were only three classes to be found, the middle class being absent in South Carolina, and the upper class being absent in North Carolina and Georgia.

(a) The Negro Slave

Far below all other classes was the negro slave. He was under the absolute control of his master, and could be bought and sold like any other property. Many of the slaves were savages, brought direct from Africa, and they were kept in dense ignorance in order that danger of insurrection might be lessened. In some of the colonies the negroes far outnumbered the whites, and the white people lived in constant fear of uprisings. This dread is shown plainly in many severe laws relating to the negroes. They were not allowed to leave the plantation to which they belonged without permits, and if they ran away might be killed by any one on sight. A white man could not be imprisoned for killing a negro, but he might be fined. These severe laws would indicate that the negroes were badly and evenly cruelly treated, but as a rule such was not the case. The negroes employed on the small farms and as house servants were, as a rule, well treated in all the colonies. On the large plantations of South Carolina and Georgia they did not fare so well, for many of the planters lived in Charleston and left the control of their plantation and negroes to overseers, who often overworked the slaves and treated them cruelly.

(b) Indented Servants

Indented white servants were found in all the colonies. An indented servant was a person sold to some one for a certain number of years. During the term of the indenture or contract he belonged to his master, and could not leave without his consent, but after he had served the time specified he became free. These indented servants and the poor whites comprised the second class of society in the colonies, but, because of race and ability, were far above the negro slave. In character they ranged from English, Scotch and Irish prisoners of war to the common criminal. Many boys and girls were stolen in England and sent over to the colonies, and some honest and hard-working, but poor people became indented servants in order to pay for their passage to America. As a class, however, the indented servants were of poor character, for the most part transported criminals and the scum of the cities of England, and when they became free, formed the most undesirable class in the colonies. The laws relating to indented servants were very severe. During their term of service their condition was little better than that of the negro slave.

(c) The Middle and Upper Classes

The middle class in the southern colonies was composed of traders, merchants and small land holders, while the large land owners composed the upper class. The traders and merchants were held in contempt by the land owners, but there was no material distinction between the large and the small land owners. The owners of the large plantations were much like the country gentlemen of England, except that they were even more independent and aristocratic. They ruled the colonies in which they lived and were given cordial support by all the other classes. They were brave and emphatic in their defense of English liberty, and from

this class came some of the leaders during the struggle for independence. Virginia alone, in this period, gave to the nation Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Marshall and Henry. The conditions on the large plantations tended to develop men of strong character and ability. There were more than five hundred persons on some of these plantations, and their management required considerable ability. Frequently the owners of large plantations trained their slaves in the various trades so that very little outside help was required.

2. *Dress and Amusements*

In dress the upper classes followed the fashions in London, wearing rich, gay colored silks and velvets, rare laces and jewels, and powdered wigs. The plantations being so large and so far apart, there was less social life in the South than in some of the northern colonies. In Charleston, however, there was more gay social life than in any other city in America. The southern land holders possessed great hospitality, and love for social life and out door sports. Horse-racing and hunting were their two principal amusements. Rural field sports were also very popular and were usually under the direction of the planters.

II New England

1. *Classes of Society*

The total population of New England at the time of the Revolution was about seven hundred thousand. Of this population the number of slaves did not exceed fifteen thousand. As in the South, there were four classes of society — the slaves, the indented servants, the middle class, and the upper class.

(a) Slaves

The small number of slaves in New England was due largely to industrial conditions, and the industrial con-

ditions of New England were the result, at least to a large extent, of its topography, climate and soil. The slaves were employed almost exclusively as house servants. They were treated kindly, owing to their close personal relation with their masters, and the laws regarding them were much milder than in the South.

(b) Indented Servants

There were comparatively few members of this class in New England. They were treated kindly, and after they became free, they usually succeeded in going into business for themselves.

(c) The Middle and Upper Classes

Most of the members of these two classes were of good English stock and there was no distinct line between them. The middle class was composed of farmers, merchants, and tradesmen, and formed the mass of the population. This class was much better educated in New England than in the other colonies. There was as distinct and as strong an aristocracy in New England as in the southern colonies but it rested on a somewhat different basis. The upper or aristocratic class was composed not of large land holders but of those whose families for generations had been noted for their wealth and education or service to the government; of those who were well educated; of those who had performed valuable public service; and of those who had been very successful as merchants or in commerce.

2. *Social Distinctions*

Nearly all offices were filled by men of the upper class. The son of a carpenter or a bricklayer or of any one engaged in a similar occupation could not hold office. In church people were seated according to their social position, and people were compelled to occupy the seats assigned

to them. A student on entering college was assigned a position according to the social standing of his father. It is rather surprising that in a new country where labor was considered honorable that so many of the every day affairs of life should have been so much affected by social position.

3. *Dress and Amusements*

The nature of the Puritan religion had a great deal to do with the dress and amusements of the New England people. The Puritan religion made New England life earnest, simple and solemn. It taught that amusements and undue hilarity and pleasure were the works of Satan. The wealthy class wore clothes of fine material but simple in style. The outdoor amusements consisted of hunting, fishing, sleighing and various athletic sports. After New England was placed under the royal governors the church lost much of its power in government affairs and the life of the people became brighter and more cheerful. While theatres were not countenanced until after the Revolution, balls and parties came to be an unquestioned part of social life.

III The Middle Colonies

1. *Classes of Society*

At the time of the Revolution the total population of the middle colonies was about six hundred and seventy thousand of which number about sixty-five thousand were slaves. With the exception of the large Dutch land holders along the Hudson and Mohawk rivers in New York, the people of the middle colonies were divided into but three well defined classes—the slaves, the indented servants, and the class corresponding to the middle class in Virginia and in New England.

(a) Slaves

As in New England, nearly all the slaves were employed as house servants, and consequently they were usually well treated. Although the number of slaves was small, at times there was fear of a slave uprising in the large cities. All such attempts, or even indications of such attempts, met with severe punishment.

(b) Indented Servants

The number of indented servants was larger than in New England, and they were not so well treated. With the exception of Virginia, Pennsylvania contained more indented servants than any other colony.

(c) The Middle Class

The great mass of the people belonged to this class which was vigorous, earnest and progressive. There were fewer English in proportion to the population in the middle colonies than in any of the other colonies. New York contained a large number of Dutch, and the German, French, Scotch and Irish comprised a large part of the population of Pennsylvania and Delaware.

(d) The Upper Class

The only distinct upper class or aristocracy in the middle colonies was made up of the large Dutch land owners, whose ancestors had received grants of land along the Hudson and Mohawk rivers when the Dutch first settled New York. The owners of these estates had even more authority and power than the large land owners of the South. Each of the larger estates was entitled to one representative in the legislature of the colony. In some cases the owner held almost absolute power over his tenants, even to inflicting the death penalty for violation of laws.

2. *Dress and Amusements*

In the country and small towns the life of the people was quiet and simple. As a rule the clothes were home-made of home spun cloth. The amusements were few and simple, consisting of corn huskings and spinning bees, and of simple out door sports. There was more social life in the country than among the New England farmers. On festive occasions there was a good deal of drinking and dancing. In the cities there was much gay social life. In dress, the wealthier class in Philadelphia and New York followed the London fashions closely, both men and women wearing silk and velvet and rich, bright colored materials. The principal amusements were balls, parties and theatres, and clubs for the young men. With the exception of Charleston, gay social life was enjoyed to a fuller extent in New York and Philadelphia than in any of the other cities in the colonies.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Social Conditions)

I

Describe fully what constitutes social life. What were the more important conditions affecting social life in the colonies? Name and describe the four classes of society that existed in the southern colonies. What was the condition of the negro slave when he was first brought to America? Why was he not educated? Describe the laws relating to the negroes. Why were such laws passed? Tell all you can of the treatment of slaves. Why was there a difference in the treatment of slaves between the extreme southern colonies, Georgia and South Carolina, and those southern colonies further north? Describe the character of the indented servants of the southern colonies. How were they treated? Compare their condition with that of the slaves. What distinctions existed between the middle and upper classes in the southern colonies? In what way did slavery affect the attitude of the gentlemen of the upper class toward tradesmen and merchants? Describe the character and position of the southern gentlemen. What can you say of their patriotism? Name some of the leading patriots of our nation who belonged to the upper class in the southern colonies. Show how the conditions of plantation life tended to develop men of strong character and ability. Describe

the industrial life on a large plantation. Describe the dress of the upper classes. What amusements were most popular with the southerners? Describe the rural field sports.

II

What classes of society existed in New England? Describe each class. Describe the treatment of the slaves and bound servants. Upon what basis did the distinction between the middle and upper classes rest in New England? How did this differ from the southern basis of aristocracy? How did a man's social position in New England affect his prominence in politics? How did class distinctions enter into the every day life of the people? How did they affect college life? What was the effect of the Puritan religion on the dress and amusements of the people? Describe the amusements of the New England people. What effect did the coming of the royal governors have on the social life of New England?

III

Compare the white and the slave populations of the middle colonies with those of New England and the southern colonies. What classes of society were found in the middle colonies? Compare the treatment of slaves in these colonies with their treatment in the southern colonies, and in New England. What was the character of the bound servants of the middle colonies? What proportion of the total population of the middle colonies was of English descent? Compare this proportion with the proportion which existed in New England and in the southern colonies. Of what did the aristocracy of New York consist? Compare the owners of large estates on the Hudson with the large land holders of the South in respect to position and power. Describe the dress and amusements of the people of the country and small towns. Describe the dress and amusements of the upper classes in the cities.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the general conditions affecting social life in the colonies. Discuss briefly the classes of society existing in the colonies. Discuss the condition of the slaves in the colonies, comparing their conditions in the three sections. Discuss the indented servants and their conditions in the various colonies. Discuss the middle class in New England and in the southern and middle colonies. Discuss the character and position of the upper class in New England and in the southern and middle colonies. Discuss the social distinctions existing in New England and in the South. Discuss the dress and amusements of the people of the colonies.

GOVERNMENT

In beginning the formal study of government, it is suggested that a general view of the subject be presented to the pupil by some such discussion as the following:

Each pupil attending school lives with his parents, and is therefore one member of a family. He is also a member of the school that he attends. He is a citizen or member of the county in which he lives, and whether he lives in a town, a city, or in the country, he is a member of one of the parts or subdivisions of the county. He is also a member of the state in which he lives, and as the states make up the nation, he is a member of the nation, or, as is usually said, a citizen of the United States. Each family, school, subdivision of the county, county, state, and the nation also, have certain rules or laws which are called government. Each pupil, therefore, lives under several different forms of government. He lives under the government of his parents or guardian; under the government of his teacher and the school trustees or board of education; under the government of the city or other division of the county in which he lives; under the government of the county in which he lives; under the government of the state in which he lives; and under the government of the United States. Everyone lives under these different forms of government and must obey the rules or laws of each. Men and women of course are not under the rules of the family and school in the same way that a pupil is, but they must obey the general laws relating to the family and school. With so many laws it would seem that the laws of the family, school, county, state and nation would conflict and interfere with each other. They do not, however, and this is most remarkable. All these laws work in harmony. This is not the result of chance or accident. Our ancestors for thousands of years have been working at the different divisions of government and making laws for each. A long time ago when our ancestors were savages the laws were rude and simple. Ever since then the laws have gradually been changed, increased in number and made better, and at the present time they are being changed and made better each

year. The laws have been changed and are being changed in order that boys and girls and men and women may live happier and more useful lives.

I Local Government

1. *The County*

The governments of the state and of the United States are known as the state and national governments and that of the county and all smaller divisions is known as local government. To-day in nearly all the states west of the Appalachian mountains and in many of those east, the county is the most powerful unit or division of local government. Its powers and duties are next to those of the state, and they are carried out by a board of men called commissioners or supervisors, who are elected by the people. In nearly all the counties these county boards must levy taxes and take general charge of the money affairs of the county, look after the schools, construct bridges and roads, and look after the poor. In addition to this board of commissioners or supervisors, there are a number of other county officers, as sheriff, treasurer, assessor, tax collector, superintendent of schools, auditor, recorder and judge. From this it will be seen that the county is a very important unit of government. The county did not always have these great powers, but in all the colonies except New England and South Carolina the county was the most important unit of local government. In New England it possessed some important powers. In each county there was a county court composed of men elected by the people and of others appointed by the governor, which could interpret the laws in certain cases, lay out public roads, and oversee the township officers. It was not so important as the township, however. In the South, except in South Carolina, the county had control of all important local affairs. In Virginia the county court whose members were appointed by the governor, acted as a

judicial body and had general charge of the affairs of the county, such as levying taxes, care of the public money, and appointing some of the county officers. In all the colonies except South Carolina and those of New England, the county was the local unit that elected delegates to the legislature or law making body of the colony. In the middle colonies the county was especially important. The Pennsylvania plan of county government has been adopted by a large majority of the states. In that colony the county board consisted of three commissioners elected by all the people of the colony, and had great power in local affairs. A number of other county officers were elected by the people and considerable power given to them. Each county so far as its local affairs were concerned, was a little republic. Most of the states which have adopted this plan have changed it somewhat. In New York the members of the county board were called supervisors and were elected by, and represented, the different townships of the county. This plan also has been copied in some of the states.

2. *The Township*

In New England each county consisted of townships. Townships were formed before the early counties were organized. This was due to the fact that the Puritans came over in congregations and established towns. A town in New England included not only the town proper, but the adjacent country also. In New England, therefore, "Town" and "Township" meant the same in so far as it relates to a unit of local government. These townships had by far the most power in local affairs. Meetings called town meetings were held by all the voters in the township, and at these meetings people could levy taxes and direct the management of the money raised, could elect delegates to the legislature of the colony, could elect township officers, and could provide for schools.

In fact they could act on all the more important local affairs. While the township has lost some of its powers, it is still the most important unit of local government in New England. The principle of township government exists in most of the states at the present time but in a different sense than in New England. Most of the country west of the Appalachian mountains has been divided into townships by the government of the United States, and these divisions are often used for purposes of local government. In many states the counties have been divided into districts, precincts, or townships, but not the six-mile-square townships established by the National Government. These smaller divisions are used simply for the management of purely local affairs, and do not affect general county government.

3. *The Parish*

In South Carolina each county was divided into subdivisions called parishes or districts, and they were the most important unit of local government. They had much the same power as the township in New England, and the county was of even less importance than in New England. The parish remained the unit of local government in South Carolina until after the Civil War, when the county was given control of local affairs. In Virginia the counties were divided into parishes, but the officers of the parish had little to do except to look after the affairs of the Episcopal Church.

II Colonial and State Government

Next to the county in the affairs of government is the state. The states in matters of government have control of all those things that the people have not given to the national government of the United States or which are not controlled by the county or the smaller units of local government. The

people of the United States have given to the national government control of all those things which affect the nation as a whole, and have reserved to the states all other powers of government. That part of these reserved powers which affects more directly the people of the entire state, is given to the state government. The other part of these reserved powers belongs to the county and the smaller units of local government. The division of all these powers of government,—national, state, and local—is stated and defined in the national and state constitutions, which have been adopted by the people either by direct vote or by representatives whom they have elected. The state constitutions give to the state government the power to outline and define in many ways the powers of local government, but as the state officers are elected by the people, they carry out the wishes of the people in these matters. Thus it follows that in the United States the people are the source of all power, and that they have the power to change a law or even the form of government.

1. *State Government—Legislative Department*

National, state, and local governments consist of three departments—the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. The legislative department makes the laws; the executive department executes or enforces them; the judicial department interprets, or tells what the law means, and applies them to the affairs of life. The legislative department in all the states consists of two houses. The upper house is the smaller, and in every state is called the Senate. The lower house is usually called the Assembly or House of Representatives. The legislative department of the national government also consists of two houses. The upper is called the Senate and the lower the House of Representatives. The legislative department in the county consists of the board of commissioners or supervisors, and the legislative department of cities or

other smaller units of local government consists of similar bodies. The members of the legislative department in all the states and in all the units of local government are elected by the people. The state legislatures have important power and have control of many things. "All of the general laws under which our local governments and schools are organized, those referring to the state and local courts and procedure in these courts, those dealing with the making and enforcement of contracts, the transfer of property, marriage and divorce, with the prevention of the spread of diseases, with the incorporation of business houses—all of these form only a part of the vast number under the charge of the legislatures, the whole, covering a set of subjects of the first importance not only because there are so many, but because all are of such interest to us in our home and business life."

2. *State Government—Executive Department*

In all the states the highest executive officer is the Governor; in the national government, he is the President of the United States; and in the larger towns he is called the mayor. In the counties the various county officials attend to the executive business. While the Governor is at the head of the executive department of the state, there are a number of other executive officers in the state who assist in enforcing the laws. Among the other more important executive officers of each state are the Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Controller, Treasurer, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Attorney-General. The governor is always elected by the people, and so are the other executive officers, except in a few states where some of them are appointed either by the governor or by the legislature. The lieutenant-governor usually presides over the Senate when it is in session and takes the governor's place if he resigns or dies, and when he is absent from the state. The other executive officers just named

perform the duties of their various offices. All local officers also must assist in enforcing the laws of the state, and this is a great help to the state officers. The governor is by far the most important executive officer in the state. He is commander-in-chief of the state soldiers or militia, and when the other state or local officers cannot enforce the laws, he may call on the soldiers to assist in their enforcement.

3. *State Government—Judicial Department*

The judicial department of each state consists of a supreme court and of a number of lower courts. The judicial department of the national department also consists of a supreme court and a number of lower courts. Next to the supreme court of the state are the circuit or district courts (in some states); next to these are the county courts; and next to the county courts are the city courts and the justices' courts. The judges in all these courts are elected usually by the people but in several states some of them are appointed by the governor or legislature. The members of the supreme court are elected usually by the people of the entire state, and a judge in a lower court is elected by the people in that division of the state of which he is a judge. The city courts and justices' courts try the less important cases; the county courts those which are of still more importance and from the last named courts cases may be appealed to the supreme courts. Many cases may be appealed from the lowest courts in the state up through all the others, and some cases may be appealed from the state supreme court to the United States courts.

4. *Colonial Government—Legislative Department*

The colonial governments, like the state governments of to-day, consisted of three departments—legislative, executive, and judicial. The legislative department in all

the colonies, like those in all the states to-day, consisted of two houses. The lower house was usually called house of representatives, the assembly, or house of burgesses. The members of the lower house, as is the case in all the states to-day, were elected by the people. But there was one important difference. In all the colonies, no one could vote for a member of the lower house or for any other officer of the colony, unless he owned a certain amount of property, whereas to-day in the United States no property qualification is required of a voter. The upper branch of the legislature in the colonies was called the council and consisted usually of twelve members, called assistants or members of the Governor's council. Except in Connecticut and Rhode Island, the members of the council were either appointed by the governor or by the lower house, as was the case in Massachusetts, and approved by the governor. In Connecticut and Rhode Island, the members of the upper house were elected by the people. Thus it becomes plain that except in these two colonies, the governor, by his power of appointment, practically controlled the upper branch of the legislature. It should be remembered, however, that with the exception of Connecticut and Rhode Island, the upper house, or council, had very little to do with making the laws. The main duty of the council was to advise the governor and to assist him in carrying out the duties of his office.

5. *Colonial Government—Executive Department*

The executive department in each colony consisted of the governor and the governor's council or upper house of the legislature. In Rhode Island and Connecticut the governors were elected by the people, and in Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland they were appointed by the proprietors. In all the other colonies they were appointed by the king. The royal and proprietary governors possessed the important powers of vetoing laws passed by

the legislatures, and of appointing judges and other officers. They were continually quarrelling with the lower house except in Rhode Island and Connecticut where the governor and both houses worked together harmoniously.

6. *Colonial Government—Judicial Department*

The judicial department was merged into the executive department in the colonies, the governor and his council acting as the supreme judicial body of each colony. The minor judicial officers were appointed by the governor, although in a few cases they were elected by the people.

7. *Colonial Government—Classes*

Colonial government may be divided into three classes, on the basis of the manner of selecting the governor. In the charter government the people chose the governor. In the proprietary government the proprietor selected him, and in the royal government he was appointed by the king. But these names as to form of government are of very little importance. The important facts are that in all the thirteen colonies the lower, and by far the more important, branch of the law-making body was elected and controlled by the people; that in all the colonies except Connecticut and Rhode Island, the council or upper house of the legislature was not elected by the people, but was appointed by the governor; and that in all the colonies, with the same two exceptions, the governor was not elected by the people, but was appointed either by the king or by the proprietor.

(a) Charter Government

A charter government was one established by a written contract between the king and the colonists, stating the share which each should have in the government of the colony. This charter or contract could not be changed legally without the consent of both parties.

During the eighteenth century, Connecticut and Rhode Island were the only real charter colonies. Massachusetts was about half charter and half royal.

(b) Proprietary Government

A proprietary government was established when the king granted a large tract of land to some individual, who, by the terms of the grant, had the right to organize a colony and to appoint the governor. During the eighteenth century, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland were the only proprietary colonies.

(c) Royal Government

In the case of a royal colony, the king appointed a governor. The royal colonies were directly under the control of the king, but as stated above, the people controlled the legislative department. During the eighteenth century all the colonies, except the charter and proprietary colonies, were royal colonies.

III National Government

The national government of the colonies was the same as that of England. The English Parliament and the English king were the highest government authority in England and they were also the highest government authority in the colonies. The English king and Parliament bore, in a general way, the same relation to the colonies that the national government of the United States at the present time bears to the various states. When the people of the colonies became independent, they established the national government to take the place of the English king and the English Parliament.

IV Relation of Colonial Government to Present State Government

We have already seen that local government to-day is the direct outgrowth of local government in the colonies. From

a study of colonial government it becomes plain, that the legislative, executive and judicial departments of the state governments in the United States at the present time are simply the modification and expansion of these departments in the colonies. The colonial legislature consisted of a lower and an upper house. The lower house corresponds to the lower house in the state legislature to-day, and there have not been many important changes in its nature. The council, or upper house, in the colonies corresponds to the state senate, or upper house, in the state legislature at the present time, but the council has undergone a great change. The members of the senate are elected by the people and the senate has as much power in making laws as the lower house. The governor is at the head of the state executive department to-day, as he was at the head of that department in the colonies, but he is elected by the people. The same close relation between colonial times and the present time, exists in the judicial departments. The different courts in the colonies correspond closely with the courts in the states at the present time, except that most of the judges are now elected by the people, and are separate and distinct bodies, whereas in the colonies the courts were often the legislative and executive departments. The colonial governments of Connecticut and Rhode Island were so much like those of to-day, that their charters were adopted as their state constitutions and remained in effect until long after the Revolution, the only important change being the omission of the king's name in the public records and documents. The charter of Connecticut remained the constitution of that state until 1818, and the charter of Rhode Island remained in effect until 1842. The greatest change in government since colonial times has been in the election of officers, and in the right to vote. Nearly all officers—local, state, and national—are now elected by the people, whereas in the colonies many of them were appointed. In the colonies no one who did not own a certain amount of property could vote for any officer of the

colony, or for any local officer. At the present time no property qualification is required of any voter anywhere in the United States. All this means that the people have become much more democratic since colonial times.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Government)

Under what different forms of government does each person live? Why do not the laws of these various governments conflict?

I

Describe fully what constitutes local government. What is the most important unit of local government at the present time? What are the names and duties of the board that has general charge of the county government? Name the various county officers and briefly describe their duties. Compare the importance of the county in local government at the present time with its importance in colonial times. During colonial times how did the county in New England compare in importance with the county in the middle colonies and in the southern colonies? Describe the composition, powers and duties of the county court in New England. Compare the New England county court of colonial times with the county court that existed in the province of Virginia.

Describe the New England township, noting its origin, and comparing its importance with that of the county. Give the composition, powers and duties of the old New England town-meetings. How does township government in New England differ from that in other parts of the country at the present time? Describe the parish as a unit of government. Compare its importance in South Carolina with the importance of the township in New England.

II

Of what does the state government have control? What affairs of government are under the control of the national government. Explain how the people of the United States are the source of all power. Of what three departments does national, state and local government consist? What is the object of this division into departments? Of what two houses does the legislative department of the national government consist at the present time? Of what two houses does the state legislative department consist? What constitutes the legislative department of local government? What are the general duties and powers of the state legislative department?

Of what does the executive department of national, state and local government consist? Name some of the more important executive officers of the state, and explain how the executive officials are elected. What are the general duties and powers of the executive department?

Of what does the judicial department of national, state and local government consist? What are the general duties and powers of the judicial department?

Into how many departments was the government of the various colonies divided? Compare the legislative department in the colonies with the state legislative department today in regard to the number of houses and qualification of members. During colonial times what were the general powers and duties of the lower branch of the legislative department? Of the upper branch?

Of what did the executive department in the colonies consist? How were the governors selected? What were their general powers and duties? Of what did the judicial department in the colonies consist? Define its duties and powers.

Name each class of colonial government. Explain Charter Government. Explain Proprietary Government. Explain Royal Government.

III

Of what did the national government of the colonies consist? Explain the relation of the national government to the colonies.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the relation between local government in the colonies and local government at the present time. Show in what way the state legislative department today is simply an outgrowth and modification of the legislative department in the colonies. In what ways do the state executive departments today resemble the executive departments in the colonies? Explain the relation between the judicial department of today and the judicial department of the colonies. What change has there been since colonial times as to the number of officers elected directly by the people? What change has there been as to the qualifications of voters?

RELIGION: GROWTH OF RELIGIOUS LIBERTY

I Religious Liberty at the Present Time

If the government of any civilized nation at the present time should kill or imprison or punish in any way, a person because he belonged to a certain church, its action would be severely condemned by almost every one. Scarcely any one to-day believes that a man should be killed or punished in any way because he may be a member of the Methodist, Presbyterian, Catholic or any other church. The right of a person to think and to act in religious matters as he may desire, so long as he does not interfere with the rights of others, is now conceded by almost everybody. So thoroughly is this principle established and accepted that the government of the United States, or of any other civilized nation, would use its entire power to protect its citizens in their rights to enjoy quietly and peacefully their religious ideas.

II Religious Persecution in Europe

The right of a person to enjoy quietly and peacefully his religious ideas is called "religious liberty." Strange as it now seems people have enjoyed religious liberty but for a very short time. Less than two hundred and fifty years ago, men and women were put to death in almost every nation, simply because they wished to belong to some other church than the one protected by the government. In Spain, France and Germany thousands were killed for this reason and many more were imprisoned or otherwise punished. Hundreds were put to death in England for the same reason. In all of these countries men and women were burned to death and tortured in other ways, because they would not uphold the established or state church—that is the church protected by the government. In 1686 thousands of Huguenots were massacred in France. Women and children were dragged from their beds in the night and murdered because of their religious ideas. From 1685 to 1700 fully two hundred thous-

and Huguenots left France in order to escape these religious persecutions. From 1550 to 1650 more than one hundred thousand perished in the religious wars of Europe.

III Religious Persecution in the Colonies

These persecutions for religious reasons were not restricted to the Old World. Some of the English colonies in America did the same thing. For a long time in Massachusetts, men and women were not permitted to establish any church except the Congregational or Puritan church, or to teach or preach any religious doctrine except that of the Congregational church. The government of Massachusetts whipped, imprisoned, and banished men and women because of their religious ideas. These persecutions did not stop with such punishments. Four Quakers were hanged in Boston—two men in 1659, one woman in 1660, and another man in 1661. These four people were hanged by order of the court, and because they demanded the right to preach the doctrine of their church. It is absolutely incorrect to say that the Puritans came to New England for the purpose of establishing religious liberty. They came to the New World in order to escape the persecutions of the Episcopal church in England. They had no intention whatever of permitting any church to be established in New England except the Congregational church. Some of the other colonies were almost as severe as the colonies of Massachusetts and New Haven. In Virginia there were severe laws against the members of all churches except those of the Episcopal church. Members of other churches were imprisoned and banished from the colony. The Catholics first settled Maryland and granted religious liberty to every one in the colony, but as soon as the members of the Episcopal church secured control of the colony, they passed severe laws against the Catholics and the members of other churches. With but few exceptions, Catholics were persecuted in all the colonies. Rhode Island was very liberal in religious matters. Pennsylvania established

complete religious liberty from the very first. The members of all churches, including those of the Catholic church, could worship in this colony without the least fear of persecution. In 1789 the Congress of the Confederacy recommended the religious policy of Pennsylvania for adoption by all the states. After the Revolution there was complete religious liberty in all the states, and no public money whatever has since been used for the support of any church.

IV Churches Have Not Been Responsible for Religious Persecution

It is but natural that people to-day should condemn, severely, the religious persecutions referred to above. But it should be remembered that the people of to-day would have done the same thing had they lived in those times. Neither can any church be held responsible for these persecutions. In Europe, outside of England, the Catholic church directed the persecutions; in England, and in Virginia and Maryland the persecutions were directed by the Church of England or the Episcopal church; and in New England it was done in the name of the Puritans or Congregational church. In fact, up to about two hundred and fifty years ago, the leading or state religion of almost every nation during the past twenty-five hundred years has persecuted and killed those who did not agree with it on religious questions. It may be said that religious persecutions have been due to the fact that the great mass of the people were not as well educated nor as highly civilized as they are at the present time. It has been true in the history of the world, that when a large number of the people in a nation became fairly well educated they have demanded political liberty, that is, the right to make the laws which they must obey. When the people of a nation have secured the right to make their own laws, they have usually become more liberal in religious matters. This tends to prove that religious liberty in a nation follows closely general education and political liberty, and that it does not

depend on the attitude of any church. Man by nature is narrow and unjust in religious matters, and it has required long centuries of education and civilization to make him broad and liberal along these lines.

V Religious Liberty in the United States: Causes of its Growth

The United States was one of the first nations to establish complete religious liberty. At the beginning of the Revolution most of the colonies had already established religious liberty and the Revolution swept away the last vestige of religious persecution. One of the main things that caused the growth of religious liberty in the colonies was the establishment of public schools. For centuries the churches of the leading religion of a nation had control of education. This was also true in early Virginia and most of New England, but gradually in nearly all the colonies, the government took control of education. This made education more general and of a higher grade. It also prevented any church from using any public money to establish schools in which children were taught its own doctrines. In a republic like the United States a free public school system which shall not be under the control of any church and in the schools of which the doctrines of no church shall be taught must be maintained. The churches may, and most of them do, maintain private schools, but the American people insist, and wisely, that they shall not control, in any way, the free public school system. Another thing that helped to cause the rapid growth of religious liberty in the colonies, was the separation of Church and State. In the colonies of Massachusetts and New Haven, the church and state were united at first, and in Virginia and several of the other southern colonies, public money was used for the support of the church. But the Puritan church was soon separated from the government in New England, and while the Episcopal church in Virginia received public money until about the time of the Revolution,

it had little or no control of the government of that colony. This separation of church and state helped the growth of religious liberty because when a church loses control of the government it is placed on an equal footing with all the other churches, and has no power to persecute anyone. This is as it should be. Religion is a question that each person must settle for himself—it is a question between each person and the Supreme Being. The churches should have no control whatever over the government or over the free public school system, and no church or person should interfere with, or persecute, any one because of his religious ideas.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Religion)

I

What is meant by religious liberty? Describe religious liberty as it exists in the United States at the present time.

II

Compare the condition of religious liberty in the United States today with its condition in Europe about the time the colonies were settled.

III

Did the Puritans come to America for the purpose of establishing religious liberty? Tell all you can about the persecution of people in New England on account of their religious belief. Describe the laws made in the various colonies against certain churches. Describe the religious conditions in Rhode Island and in Pennsylvania.

IV

To what conditions are religious persecutions due? What is the relation between political and religious liberty? How are general education and political liberty related?

V

How did the establishment of public schools aid the growth of religious liberty in the United States? What is meant by the separation of church and state? How did the separation of church and state affect the growth of religious liberty in the colonies?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the condition of religious liberty in Europe about the time the colonies were settled. Discuss the condition of religious liberty in the colonies. Discuss the growth of religious liberty in the United States. Discuss the causes of religious persecution.

EDUCATION

I Comparison of Colonial Schools with Those of the Present Time

Very few of the boys and girls who are now attending the public schools in the United States realize what a great advantage they have over those who went to school fifty or even twenty-five years ago. The primary, the grammar and the high schools have improved wonderfully during the past twenty-five years. Eighty-five years ago there were very few free public schools in the United States, and they did very poor work as compared with those of to-day. The average high school now is doing as good work and is offering as high grade courses of study as were Harvard and Yale Colleges in 1800, and this was one hundred seventy years after Boston was founded, and one hundred sixty-four years after Harvard College was founded. It has been said by one writer that the grammar schools to-day are doing as good work as did William and Mary College in Virginia one hundred twenty-seven years ago, at the beginning of the Revolution. For one hundred fifty years after Virginia and New England were first settled there were practically no public schools of any kind in any of the southern colonies. While it is true that soon after they were founded all the New England colonies except Rhode Island passed laws which compelled every town with fifty or more families to maintain a public school of some kind, these laws were not always enforced. From the very first, however, there were a number of schools in New England, and in matters of education she was far ahead of all the other colonies. Nearly everybody in New England could read and write, but a majority of the children were taught at home.

II Condition of Schools in England

The free public school system of England was not established until 1870, thirty-three years ago. When the colonies

were first settled, and for a long time afterwards, education in England, as compared with that of to-day, was in a most wretched condition. In 1700 more than half of the English people could not read or write their own names, and as late as thirty years ago (1873) twenty out of every hundred could not. When the English colonies in America were founded, there were no public schools in England. There were a number of church and other private schools, but the great mass of the boys and girls did not attend these. Therefore when the Englishmen who founded the colonies left the mother country, there were no public schools, and education was controlled by the church and by private individuals. It is but natural that these men, when they settled in the New World, should follow the same plan of education. New conditions in the colonies caused this plan to be changed somewhat. In the southern colonies the change was for the worse; in the New England and in some of the middle colonies the change was for the better.

III The Southern Colonies

When the colonies were settled it was but natural that educational affairs should be left to the church as they had been in England. As the ability of the ministers was, as a rule, poor, educational affairs were much worse in the southern colonies than in England. Other causes of the poor condition of education in the southern colonies were the manner of living and the opposition of the royal governors to any system of education. The plantation life hindered the building up of towns or schools, and education was restricted largely to the upper class. The children of the wealthy studied under tutors, and the sons often finished their education abroad. The royal governors opposed general education on the ground that it would make the people discontented and hard to govern. There were few schools in any of the southern colonies, those few being established by private individuals or the churches. Maryland was the only one that

made any real effort to establish schools that should be controlled by civil power. A college was established in 1692 by royal charter from King William and Queen Mary and given their names. The work done by this college before the Revolution was no better than that done to-day in the grammar schools, but it was the only college in the southern colonies before the Revolution.

IV New England

The church and the ministers determined the kind and character of education in New England, just as they had in the southern colonies. The ministers of New England were of the ablest class in the colonies, well educated, earnest and upright. The Puritan religion demanded that every man and woman should read and understand the Bible and it therefore became the duty of the ministers to see to it that all the people should receive enough education to enable them to do this. As early as 1647 Massachusetts Bay Colony had a law providing that every town containing fifty or more families should maintain a school. This is the first instance in modern history that the civil power of any colony, state or nation provided for a public school system. The passage of this law was due to the Puritan religion and to the Puritan ministers. Other laws were passed regarding the establishment of schools in all the New England colonies and thus the foundation of our present public school system was laid. The New England colonies also laid the foundation for some of the greatest universities in the United States. Harvard, Yale, Dartmouth and Brown Colleges were all established during the colonial period.

V The Middle Colonies

In the matter of education the middle colonies were behind New England and ahead of the southern colonies. In New York a number of fairly good schools was established and partly supported by the government. In New Jersey

there were a few good schools maintained by the towns or the Presbyterian church. Outside of Philadelphia, education in Pennsylvania and Delaware was in a very poor condition. From the first, Philadelphia maintained schools with only a small tuition fee. It was one of the most progressive cities in the colonies in all matters of education and learning. Franklin was her leading citizen and the greatest scholar in the colonies. It was due to his efforts that the University of Pennsylvania which ranked first among all colonial colleges was founded. Princeton and Kings (Columbia) Colleges were also founded during this period.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Education)

I

Compare briefly the conditions of the schools of the colonies with those of today.

II

What was the condition of England in regard to schools and general education at the time the colonies were settled? Describe the school system of England at that time. What was the influence of educational conditions in England on those in the colonies?

III

How did the character of the ministers influence educational conditions in the South? What was the effect of plantation life upon the building up of schools? What was the attitude of the royal governors toward general education, and what was its effect? How were the sons of the rich planters educated? Tell what you can of the founding of the College of William and Mary.

IV

What was the influence of the character of the ministers upon education in New England? How did the Puritan religion serve to encourage education? Tell what you can of the first laws establishing public schools in America. Describe the founding of colleges in the New England colonies. Tell what you can of the customs and studies in these colleges.

V

How did the middle colonies compare with New England and with the southern colonies in the matter of education? Tell what you can

of the support given by the government to schools in the middle colonies. Describe the educational work of the churches. How did the general education of the people of the middle colonies compare with that of the people of New England? Tell what you can of the schools of Philadelphia. Tell what you can of the work of Franklin in advancing education. Compare the colleges of the middle colonies with those of New England.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the educational conditions in England at the time of the founding of the colonies. Discuss the influence of the ministry upon education in the colonies. Discuss the origin of the public school system. Compare New England, the southern and the middle colonies in respect to general education. Why was New England ahead of the other colonies in the matter of education? Discuss the colleges of the colonies. Compare in a general way educational conditions in the colonies with educational conditions in the United States at the present time.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

A CAUSES AND BEGINNINGS

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II TAXATION WITHOUT REPRESENTATION

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VI PREPARATION BY THE COLONISTS
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VII CONCORD AND LEXINGTON, 1775
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VIII SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF BOSTON, 1775–1776
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Mc. 149–152; T. 165–166; M. 188–189; F. 247

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

At the close of the French and Indian War in 1763, the English colonists in America were loyal English subjects. They were proud of their English origin; proud of English history, considering it part of their own inheritance. England had no more loyal subjects than the Americans. They had confidence in her government, and with reverence called her the Mother Country. Although there had been continual disagreements between the colonists and the officers in America appointed by the king, all these disputes had been local, and had not materially affected the loyalty of the colonists to England. In less than fifteen years from this time, these same colonists were in open rebellion, carrying on war against England. There were vital and far reaching causes which brought about this change of feeling, and these were the causes which led to the Revolution.

CAUSES AND BEGINNINGS

I English Control of Colonial Commerce

Up to the time of the American Revolution the prevailing idea regarding colonies was that they were planted and existed for the benefit of the home country, especially in respect to trade. In order to control the commerce of her colonies, England passed trade laws known as the Navigation Acts, and these were fundamentally connected with the causes of the Revolution. These laws extended from 1651 down to the Revolution. Their object was to secure to English merchants a monopoly of the carrying trade of England and her colonies. In some cases small duties were levied on exports and imports, but these duties were levied mainly in order to secure the better enforcement of the Navigation Acts, and not in order to raise money for the English government. The laws regulating colonial commerce were not rigidly enforced in America until after the French and Indian War. Although the colonists were irritated by these laws, they did not offer

any serious objection to them until Writs of Assistance were issued, enabling English officers to enter private houses and search for smuggled goods. These writs of assistance were search warrants and were so general in nature that they could be tyrannically used for personal and malicious ends, and their issuance caused bitter feeling.

II Taxation Without Representation

There was no central government in America which had the power to provide for the defense of all the colonies by raising soldiers and by levying taxes. It was very plain that this country would need to be protected and the British government decided to place an army in the colonies for their defense to be partly supported by the colonists by means of a tax. Parliament levied this tax itself on specific articles instead of allowing the colonists to tax themselves to raise the necessary amount. The colonists had no representative in Parliament. They would probably have submitted to the Navigation Acts and to the nominal taxes which some of them imposed. They would not, however, pay taxes levied for the purpose of revenue, and especially direct taxes, unless they had some voice in voting such taxation. They did not object to the amount of the tax, but to the principle involved. Englishmen, by more than a century of struggle, had secured the right to vote taxes through their representatives. The colonists considered themselves Englishmen with all the rights of Englishmen, and hence they refused to submit to taxation without representation. In other words, the Revolution was brought about because Englishmen in America were denied the rights enjoyed by Englishmen in England. It should be remembered that these rights were denied the colonists in America, not by the people of England, but by the King and his ministers. The common people and the best statesmen of England, like the colonists, were opposed to the levying of taxes where the people taxed had no voice in the voting of them. William Pitt was one of the English

statesmen who saw that the Americans were contending for a principle, and when he became Prime Minister, he opposed the levying of direct taxes on the colonists. He was glad that the colonists resisted the unjust taxation because he believed that if the king could unjustly tax the colonies, he might attempt to overthrow the constitutional liberties of England.

1. *The Stamp Act and the Stamp Act Congress, 1765*

The Stamp Act passed in 1765 was the first attempt of the English Parliament to levy internal taxes on the colonies, and the colonists strongly resented it as an infringement of their rights. This tax was put in the form of stamps to be placed on legal documents and printed papers and pamphlets, parliament considering this the easiest way of raising a tax, and the least likely to cause trouble. Virginia led the opposition of the colonies by passing a set of resolutions against taxation without representation. The colonies sent to the king and parliament many petitions against the Stamp Act. This feeling of opposition led to the calling of a congress composed of delegates from the different colonies for the purpose of drawing up a united remonstrance against the act. Nine of the colonies sent delegates, and this congress drew up and signed a "Declaration of Rights and Grievances." This was the first time that the colonies acted in unity.

2. *The Declaratory Act, 1766; The Townshend Acts, 1767*

When Parliament was forced, partly by the opposition of leading English statesmen and partly by the protests of English merchants who suffered from the conditions in America, to repeal the Stamp Act, it passed at the same time what is called the Declaratory Act, which asserted the right of Parliament to legislate for the colonies on all questions. In the following year a series of acts known as the Townshend Acts were passed which asserted the right

of Parliament to tax the colonists, and levied import duties on certain articles of common use. The opposition of the colonists to these acts was so violent that all except one were repealed. The tax on tea was retained merely to assert the authority of Parliament in regard to taxation. It was just this principle that the colonists were standing for, and they refused to pay even this tax. The tea sent over was, in most cases, not allowed to be landed, and in some cases it was destroyed. At Boston a body of men boarded a tea ship in the harbor and threw the tea into the ocean. This is known as the Boston Tea Party.

III Committees of Correspondence, 1772

The royal governors were alarmed and angered at the stand taken by the colonists, and in 1772 the governor of Massachusetts dissolved its legislature in order to prevent united action by the colony. Through the efforts of Samuel Adams, committees were at once appointed by the various towns in order that there might be united action, and to look after the interests of the colony. Soon events led Virginia to appoint a permanent Committee of Correspondence to communicate with the other colonies regarding their general welfare and plans of action. Within a year similar Committees of Correspondence had been appointed in all of the colonies. The work of these committees was very important as it prepared the Americans for united action in the struggle which was to follow.

IV The Repressive or Intolerable Acts, 1774

The action of the colonists regarding the tea tax angered the king and Parliament, and a series of acts were passed for the purpose of punishing Massachusetts. The first of these acts, known as the Boston Port Bill, provided for the closing of the port of Boston, and the third act, which annulled the charter of Massachusetts and provided for a military governor with arbitrary power, were especially tyrannical. These

acts served to rouse the people of all the colonies to the danger their liberties were in, and to prepare their minds for rebellion.

V The First Continental Congress, 1774

The passing of the Repressive Acts led directly to the calling of a congress of delegates by the colonies. This congress was a direct outgrowth of the Correspondence Committees, and it marked an advance step. It contained delegates from all the colonies except Georgia, and thus represented the feeling of the colonies as a whole. It met with the definite purpose of obtaining a redress of grievances and had as members most of the ablest men in America. In addition to drawing up a Declaration of Rights, and issuing addresses to Englishmen, to Americans, and to the king, asking for the protection of these rights, this Congress decided upon a definite plan of action by all the colonies, and made provision for effectively carrying out these plans.

VI Preparation by the Colonists

When the petitions of the Continental Congress were ignored by the king and by Parliament, and Gage was sent over as military governor of Massachusetts, the colonists began active preparations for war. Arms and provisions were collected and volunteer soldiers were enrolled and drilled in the various colonies. Patriotic societies were formed among both men and women for the purpose of resisting the attacks on English rights in America.

VII Concord and Lexington, 1775

An attempt by Gage to seize supplies stored by the colonists at Concord resulted in the first bloodshed of the war. While the number lost was small on both sides, these two engagements inflamed the colonists as no merely political act could have done.

VIII Siege and Capture of Boston, 1775-1776

After the battles of Concord and Lexington the British under Gage were shut up in Boston by colonial soldiers. The Continental Congress assumed control of the troops besieging Boston, made Washington commander-in-chief, and took measures to obtain more men for the continental army, as it was now called. The battle of Bunker Hill was the most important engagement of this siege. While the British were victorious their victory was dearly bought. In substance it was a victory for the Americans as it gave them confidence in their ability to resist English arms. After a siege of nearly a year, the British were compelled to evacuate Boston. During this time the fortress of Ticonderoga and the small fort of Crown Point had been taken by colonial soldiers, and an unsuccessful expedition had been sent into Canada.

IX Declaration of Independence, 1776

The action of the king in rejecting all petitions, in declaring the colonists rebels, and in hiring foreign troops to put down the rebellion, led the colonists to decide upon complete independence of Great Britain. The formation of state governments, and the publication of numerous patriotic writings aided the colonists in reaching this conclusion. A resolution affirming the independence of the colonies was passed by the Continental Congress on July 2nd, 1776, and two days later the Declaration of Independence was adopted.

X Comparison of Resources of England and America

England had great advantages over the colonists in respect to wealth and population, but these were offset to some extent by the distance of the colonies from England, and by the hostility of other European nations to Great Britain. Both England and America suffered from lack of unity in the support of the war, but England suffered the more, for

while there were many in America who sympathized with the English and even aided them, in England the leading statesmen strongly opposed the war from the beginning to the end. The colonies' greatest weakness lay in their lack of a strong central government with power to raise money and soldiers and to conduct the war with vigor. While England could obtain almost any amount of military supplies and troops, the Americans had great difficulty in these respects. On the other hand, the Americans had an advantage in the superiority of their commanders, and in the patriotic spirit of their army.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Causes and Beginnings of the Revolution)

What was the attitude of the colonists toward England at the end of the French and Indian war?

I

What was the general idea regarding the relations of colonies to their home countries before the American Revolution? What were the Navigation Acts and why were they passed? Why did the colonists not seriously object to these laws? Describe Writs of Assistance and tell why the colonists objected to them.

II

Why did the British Parliament levy a tax on the colonists after the close of the French and Indian war? Was such a tax necessary? Why did the colonists oppose it? What is meant by taxation without representation? Why did the colonists value so highly the right of taxation? How did the common people as well as the leading statesmen of England regard taxation without representation? Why did the king and his ministers insist upon taxing the colonies without their consent? What was the Stamp Act, and how was it regarded by the colonists? Describe the action of Virginia against this tax. What action was taken by the other colonies? Tell what you can of the Stamp Act Congress, discussing its origin, composition and work. Describe the way in which the stamp-distributors and the stamped paper were treated by the people. Why did the Stamp Act never go into effect? Why did the English merchants wish to have the Stamp Act repealed? Why did Parliament repeal the Act? What was the Declaratory Act and why was it passed? Describe the Townshend Acts. How were they received by the colonists? What effect did

the opposition of the colonists have? Why was the tax on tea retained? Why did the colonists refuse to buy the tea? How was the tea received by the colonists? Tell the story of the Boston Tea Party.

III

What brought about the forming of local committees of correspondence, and what was their purpose? Tell what you can of the work of Samuel Adams in organizing these committees. What led to the organizing of permanent Committees of Correspondence in all the colonies? What was the value of these Committees?

IV

Describe each of the Repressive or Intolerable acts. Why were they called the "Intolerable Acts"? What was the object of the King and Parliament in passing these acts? What effect did the enforcement of these acts have on the colonies?

V

Discuss the growth of colonial union—that is the growth of unity of action among the colonies. Explain the events that led to the calling of the First Continental Congress. Discuss the composition and work of this Congress.

VI

What led the colonies to make active preparations for war? Describe these preparations. Who were the minute men?

VII

Tell all you can about the battles of Lexington and Concord. What was the effect of these battles upon the colonists?

VIII

Tell what you can about the siege of Boston. Describe the Battle of Bunker Hill. What was the effect of this battle? (Each pupil should draw a map of the neighborhood of Boston showing the position of the British and the colonial troops during the siege of Boston and in the Battle of Bunker Hill.) Describe the capture of forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Describe Washington's taking charge of the army and his work in organizing it.

IX

Describe the petitions sent by the colonists to the king after the capture of Boston. What do they show as to the feeling of the colonists toward England? What actions of the king's caused the people to desire to become independent of Great Britain? Why did King George hire for-

eign soldiers to fight in America? How was this regarded in Europe and in America? Tell what you can of the patriotic writings of Thomas Paine and their effect upon the people. When and why were state governments formed? How did the formation of these governments aid in the growth of the desire for independence? Describe the passing of the Declaration of Independence. What was the nature of the Declaration? How was it received by the Americans?

X

How was opinion in England divided regarding this war? What was the attitude of the other nations of Europe toward England? Were the Americans united in favor of the war? How did the United States compare with England in wealth? What was the source of its greatest weakness? In what respects had the United States the advantage of England in this war?

CAMPAIGNS

After the English under Gage sailed away from Boston on March 17, 1776, they made no further attempt during the war to invade and subdue New England. Neither did they make any serious attempt during the war to invade and subdue Virginia. Virginia and New England each contained about 700,000 people, which made their combined population about equal to that of all the other states. The people of Virginia and New England were united and aggressive in their opposition to England. Lexington, Concord and the siege of Boston had taught the British that an invasion of New England meant the stout and active resistance of almost every man. They knew that the people of Virginia were just as united and determined as those of New England, and that an invasion of that state, the home of Washington, would meet with the same strong resistance. The British decided, therefore, to leave New England and Virginia, with their large and hostile populations, alone, and to try to subdue the other states which contained fewer people and in which they hoped to find many people friendly to them. They thought that if they could get control of most of the other states, Virginia and New England would be compelled to submit. After the capture of Boston by Washington, the king and his ministers and generals, therefore, planned three general campaigns — two against the middle states and one against the far southern states. One was to capture New York City, and to secure control of the Hudson river and of as much of the state of New York as possible. The success of this campaign would have been of great value to the British, because it would have given them control of a direct line of communication between New York City and Canada, and as the English had control of the sea, this would have completely separated New England from all the other states. The object of the other campaign against the middle states was to capture Philadelphia, the largest city in America, and to secure control of as much of Pennsylvania and New Jersey as possible. By the southern campaign the British hoped to capture the cities of Charleston and Savannah, and to secure control of Georgia, South Carolina and North Carolina.

I The Campaign to Separate New England from the Other States, and the Campaign Against Philadelphia and the Middle States

These two campaigns were carried on at the same time. They extended over two years and ended in failure. They began in July, 1776, when a British army of 25,000 men under General Howe and a large British fleet under his brother, Admiral Howe, arrived at Staten Island from Halifax. They ended in June, 1778, when the British evacuated Philadelphia and concentrated all their northern forces in New York city. New York city was captured by the British in August, 1776, and was used as the basis of operations for both these campaigns, and also for the southern campaign. It was the last city evacuated by the British at the end of the war. As a result of three months' fighting, Howe had captured New York city and had slowly driven Washington a short distance up the Hudson, but the American army was about as large and as well prepared for battle as when the fighting began, although it was much smaller than the British army under Howe. In a short time, however, the meddling of Congress and the treachery of Lee compelled Washington with but a small part of his force to make a hurried retreat across New Jersey into Pennsylvania. Then in this darkest hour of the war came the capture of Trenton and his brilliant work which compelled the British to withdraw from nearly all New Jersey. As a result of four months' fighting the British held New York city and a few outlying posts. The attempt of General Carleton to march down the Hudson from Canada, join Howe at New York city and thus separate New England from the middle states, was a complete failure.

In the spring of 1777 the British renewed their campaigns for the capture of Philadelphia and for the separation of New England from the other states. Burgoyne with an army of 8,000 men was to capture the Fortress of Ticonderoga and march down the Hudson. St. Leger with a force of about 2,000 men was to capture Oswego on the east shore

of Lake Ontario and march across New York to the Hudson and join Burgoyne. Howe with some 18,000 men was to move up the Hudson and meet Burgoyne. Before doing this he decided to capture Philadelphia. This proved to be a mistake. He succeeded in capturing Philadelphia, but the excellent generalship of Washington compelled him to consume about four months in doing this and it was then too late to assist Burgoyne. On October 17—a few days after Howe entered Philadelphia — Burgoyne was forced to surrender at Saratoga on the upper Hudson. The capture of Philadelphia was of but little value to the British, for they were able to hold only as much territory as was actually occupied by their troops, while the surrender of Burgoyne was a great injury. As a result of this surrender, France soon made an alliance with America. This compelled the British to evacuate Philadelphia in the spring of 1778. On its march from Philadelphia to New York City the British army was attacked by Washington at Monmouth, and had it not been for the treachery of Lee, this battle would have resulted in a serious disaster to the English. The British now concentrated all their northern forces in New York city. Thus the two northern campaigns of the British ended in failure. In the fall of 1778 the British began their southern campaign, which was the third and last one and which was also to end in failure.

After the battle of Monmouth the British made no further real attempt to carry on the war in the North, but confined their operations to sending out marauding expeditions and to stirring up the Indians on the frontiers. The more important events in the North during the remainder of the war were the storming of Stony Point by the Americans, the treason of Arnold, and the total defeat of the Indians by Clark and Sullivan. The brilliant work of Paul Jones and of the American privateers is also worthy of special notice during this latter period of the war.

II Campaign Against the Southern Colonies

From an English standpoint this campaign was, for a time, successful. Savannah was captured, and Georgia and part of South Carolina were overrun. Several American armies were utterly destroyed. But when the inefficient Gates was superseded by Greene, the tide turned in favor of the Americans. At King's Mountain and at the Cowpens small British forces were entirely destroyed. The indecisive battle of Guilford Courthouse so weakened the British army that Cornwallis, with Greene in pursuit, retreated to Wilmington, North Carolina. With the exception of Charleston and Savannah, Greene soon forced the British to evacuate all of South Carolina and Georgia. Meanwhile Cornwallis marched north and fortified Yorktown. Here he was attacked by the combined French and American forces and compelled to surrender, October 19, 1781. Cornwallis's surrender practically ended the war.

Results of the War

As the news of the surrender at Yorktown spread through the states, the people gave themselves over to general rejoicing. There were bonfires in almost every village, for the people knew that the surrender of Cornwallis, following, as it did, Greene's great campaign in the south, ended the war. When the news reached Paris, flags were flung to the breeze, nearly all the houses were illuminated, and the French, like the Americans, gave themselves up to general rejoicing. When Lord North heard the news he walked the floor of his room in great excitement exclaiming, "My God, it is all over, it is all over, it is all over!" When Charles Fox, one of the leaders of the House of Commons, heard it, he sprang from his chair with a shout of joy. Many of the leading statesmen of England were equally as glad as Fox that Cornwallis had been captured. Lord North, who had been prime minister since 1770, was soon forced by the House of Commons to resign and the king was forced to appoint in his place the leader of the Whig party that had always been friendly to the

Americans and opposed to the war. The fall of Lord North marked the end of the king's personal rule in England. Never since then has a king of England attempted to rule. The people, through the House of Commons, have controlled the government and made the laws and the king has simply reigned. The surrender at Yorktown, therefore, was a glorious victory for Englishmen as well as for Americans. The Americans had fought to uphold the liberties of Englishmen, just as their ancestors in England had often done in the years gone by. On September 3rd, 1783, a treaty of peace was signed at Paris, which ended the war between England on one side and France, Spain and the United States on the other. The new nation secured the territory extending from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from the Great Lakes to Florida; England secured the right to navigate the Mississippi, and the Americans obtained the right to fish on the Newfoundland Banks; the republican spirit received a remarkable stimulus throughout the world.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Campaigns of the Revolution)

I

In what way did the battles of Lexington and Concord, and the siege of Boston influence the British plans of campaigns? Describe the three general campaigns adopted by the British after the siege of Boston. What was the object of each? Describe the capture of New York city by the British. (Each pupil should draw a map illustrating the battles around New York city.) Explain how the disobedience of Lee after the surrender of Fort Washington injured the American cause. In what way was Lee captured by the English? Describe the retreat of Washington through New Jersey. Describe the capture of Trenton by Washington. Explain how Washington soon after the capture of Trenton succeeded in compelling the British to give up nearly all of New Jersey. (Each pupil should draw a map illustrating the work of Washington from the time he began his retreat across New Jersey until he went into winter quarters at Morristown.) Describe the invasion of Canada by Montgomery and Arnold.

What two campaigns did the British renew in the spring of 1777? Describe the campaign which resulted in the capture of Philadelphia by the British. (Each pupil should draw a map fully illustrating the cam-

paign which resulted in the capture of Philadelphia, and also the battles which followed immediately after its capture.) In what way did Washington's work in this campaign assist in the capture of Burgoyne and his army? Describe fully the conditions and battles which led to the surrender of Burgoyne. (Each pupil should draw a map illustrating the campaign which resulted in the surrender of Burgoyne.)

What effect did Burgoyne's surrender have on the English government? What effect did it have on the Americans? How did it assist in bringing about an alliance between France and America? How did the results of this alliance in Europe assist the Americans? How did this alliance affect the policy of the English government toward America? Why would not the Americans accept the liberal terms offered by the English government?

Describe the condition of the American army at Valley Forge. Why did the British leave Philadelphia in June, 1778? Describe the battle of Monmouth. Describe the storming of Stony Point. Discuss the treason of Arnold. After the battle of Monmouth why did the British army give up all the country in the middle and New England states except the City of New York and the country close around that city? What did the British hope to gain by stirring up the Indians on the frontiers of Pennsylvania and New York? Describe how Clark and Sullivan completely defeated the Indians. Describe the work of the American navy and privateers.

II

Describe the attempt of the English to capture Charleston in 1776. Why did the British not renew the campaign against the South until after 1778 when their two northern campaigns had practically failed? Describe the southern campaign from the capture of Savannah in the latter part of 1778 to the capture of Charleston in 1780. Describe the work of the Americans under such southern leaders as Marion, Sumpter, Pickens and Williams. Describe the campaign of Gates that resulted in his defeat at Camden.

Give a full discussion of Greene's southern campaign. What was the importance of this campaign? (Each pupil should draw a map illustrating these southern campaigns.)

Give a full description of the campaign which led to the surrender of Cornwallis. How was the news of this surrender received in America, France and England? What effect did it have on the war?

When and where was the treaty of peace signed that ended the Revolution? What territory did this treaty give to the United States? Discuss some of the other provisions of this treaty that effected the United States. Why was the success of the Americans in this war a great victory for Englishmen as well as for Americans?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the causes of the American Revolution. Discuss the first period of the Revolution. (This period ended with the evacuation of Boston by the British.) Discuss the principles for which the Americans were fighting during this first period. Discuss the campaigns against the middle states. Discuss the campaign which had for its object the separation of New England from the middle states. Discuss the campaign against the southern states. Discuss the campaign which led to the surrender of Cornwallis. Discuss the effect of the Revolution on political liberty in America and in Europe.

EIGHTH YEAR WORK

THE CRITICAL PERIOD

THE CRITICAL PERIOD

I The Nature of the National Government
Mc. 128–129, 155–159, 163; T. 131–132, 151–155, 168–170; M. 159, 162, 189; F. 203–204, 247–249, 253–254

II The Northwest Territory; The Ordinance of 1787
Mc. 160–162; T. 182–183; M. 190–191; F. 251–252

III Conditions of Money and Business
Mc. 163–165, 198–200; H. H, 218–220; T. 154–158; M. 173–174, 189–190; F. 248–250

IV Anarchy and Rebellion
Mc. 164; T. 170–171; M. 190; F. 247–251

V The Constitutional Convention

1. *Events Leading to the Convention*
Mc. 165; T. 171–172; F. 252–253

2. *Organization of the Convention: Character of Members*
Mc. 166; T. 172–173; M. 192; F. 255

3. *Making the Constitution — The Three Great Compromises*
Mc. 167; T. 173–174; M. 192, Note 3

VI The Constitution

1. *Legislative Department*
Mc. 169, 197; T. 177–178; F. 254

2. *Executive Department*
Mc. 168, 198; T. 178–179

3. *Judicial Department*
   Mc. 169, 197; T. 179; F. 254

4. *Ratification*
   Mc. 169–170; T. 174–176; M. 193; F. 256

VII Organization of the New Government
Mc. 170–173; T. 181–182

THE CRITICAL PERIOD

I The Nature of the National Government

Although the Treaty of Paris ended the war, the conditions in the colonies from the standpoint of both business and government continued very serious indeed until the ratification of the Constitution in 1788. In many ways the years between 1783 and 1789 were the most dangerous and important in the history of the United States. The period covered by these years has been aptly and fittingly called by Fiske "The Critical Period of American History." The bad condition of affairs during this period was due mainly to the fact that there was no strong central government in the United States. From the beginning of the Revolution until 1781, the Continental Congress directed and attended to the general affairs of the states. There was no other form of national government. This Congress had no legal standing. It was not created by any constitution or law, and hence its powers and duties were not defined in any way. It tried to do those things which were necessary to carry on the war with success, but as it had no power to enforce its acts or laws, its efforts were not always successful, and as a result Washington's plans were often injured. It could not raise soldiers, levy taxes, or regulate commerce — three powers that a national government must have if it wishes to live and have its laws obeyed. All Congress could do was to ask the states to do certain things. It could not do them itself, neither could it compel the states to do them. Sometimes a state granted the request of Congress, and sometimes it did not. In 1781 — about two years before the war closed — a sort of written constitution went into effect. This constitution is known as the Articles of Confederation. It was prepared by Congress and submitted to the states in 1777, but not ratified by all the states and put into effect until 1781. This constitution simply put into written form and legalized the powers which

Congress had already assumed and enjoyed. Congress was still the national or general government for all the states, and it had no more powers than it had before this written constitution or agreement had been adopted by the states. In some ways it had less power. It could not even request the states for soldiers or money unless a majority of the delegates from each of nine states voted in favor of making such request, whereas before, Congress could pass any measure if but seven states voted for it. This was indeed a weak form of government and naturally did not secure the respect of the American people or of foreign governments. Even when the war was going on, the states often did not grant the requests of Congress, and after the actual pressure of war had been removed, each state did about as it pleased. Congress had no power to carry out its treaties and agreements with foreign governments, and as a result these governments, between 1783 and 1789, came to have less and less respect for the United States. The American people were to blame for this weak and inefficient national government. They were afraid that a strong central government would try to take away their rights as the government of England had tried to do. It required five hard and dangerous years after the end of the war to convince them that a strong central government was necessary to their happiness and to the welfare of the new nation.

II The Northwest Territory; The Ordinance of 1787

The most important law enacted by Congress under the Articles of Confederation was that known as the Ordinance of 1787. This law provided for the organization and government of what was then called the Northwest Territory. This territory included what is now the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. During the greater part of the Revolution it was claimed by Virginia, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New York, but Maryland refused to ratify the Articles of Confederation until these states agreed to cede it to Congress, thus making it the common property

of all the states. By 1786 the states had given up their individual claims and this vast territory came under the direct control of Congress. The Ordinance of 1787 providing for the government of this territory is very important, as it has been the basis of the government of all new territory since acquired by the United States, except that acquired in the recent war with Spain. The more important provisions of the ordinance were those providing for the forming of new states out of this territory, and forever forbidding the existence of slavery in the Northwest Territory. A very important result of the cession of the Northwest Territory to Congress was that it tended to keep the states from separating during the critical period of our history.

III Conditions of Money and Business

The lack of good money in the United States during the Critical Period, and the bad condition of business caused great distress. No gold or silver money was made by the United States until 1793, and all the hard money used was the coin of other nations. After the Revolution nearly all of the hard money in the United States was paid out for imported goods which were much needed by the Americans and which were sent over in great quantities from England. During the Revolution Congress issued large sums of paper money to carry on the war, but as it soon became plain that Congress could never redeem this money, it very quickly became almost worthless. During the Critical Period there was a strong desire for paper money, which was issued by some of the states, and which, like the Continental Currency issued by Congress, soon became worthless. This worthless paper money and the lack of hard money caused conditions to become worse and worse. The people could not pay their taxes, and Congress had to borrow money for the running expenses of the government. Congress could not compel the states to comply with its request for money, and the credit of the United States became very poor among foreign nations. These bad conditions showed the need of a stronger central

government, and this need was brought home more sharply to the people by the disputes among the states regarding the levying of import duties on one another's products, and conflicting land claims.

IV Anarchy and Rebellion

The disputes of the states over territory led to the raising of troops by some of the states, and while all these disputes were finally settled without actual warfare, they indicated plainly that war between the states might break out at any time. The refusal of Massachusetts to issue paper money led to the breaking out of an open insurrection — known as Shays's Rebellion—against the state authority. Some 2,000 men took up arms, and it required more than 4,000 state troops to put down the insurrection. Such conditions alarmed all thinking people, and made them ready to sanction a central government that would be strong enough to protect life and property in all the states, and that would give peace and prosperity to the nation.

V The Constitutional Convention

1. *Events Leading to the Convention*

The desirability of opening up and settling the country west of the Alleghanies led to a meeting of delegates from Maryland and Virginia at Washington's home in 1785 to discuss plans for improving navigation on the upper part of the Potomac river and for building roads in the new western country. During this meeting, which was held at Washington's suggestion, Washington suggested that Maryland and Virginia hold a joint convention for discussing further the building of roads and canals, and for discussing uniformity of trade laws. Later it was decided to invite delegates from all the states to attend this convenvention, but when the meeting assembled at Annapolis in September, 1785, it was found that only five of the states were represented. The delegates, therefore, did not attempt to settle any of these questions, but passed a reso-

lution suggesting to all the states that they send delegates to a convention to be held at Philadelphia in May of the following year. Congress recommended to the states that they appoint such delegates, and all the states did so except Rhode Island.

2. *Organization of the Convention: Character of Members*

The Constitutional Convention is distinctly American, and the one that framed our National Constitution is by far the most important one ever held in America. It was composed of fifty-five members and represented all the states except Rhode Island. In almost every case the states sent their ablest men, and it is no doubt true that never before or since have so many able men come together for the purpose of discussing government. Washington, Franklin and Madison were the chief men in the convention, but others were of only a little less importance. Although their work was to be very important, but few of the members had a definite idea of what they were to do, because the resolution which called the Convention simply stated in a general way that it was called for the purpose of providing a better central government for the United States. Washington was elected president of the Convention, and it sat with closed doors, everything being kept secret until its work was complete.

3. *Making the Constitution—The Three Great Compromises*

Some of the members of the Convention were afraid that the people would not ratify a constitution that provided for a strong central government, and they therefore suggested that the work of the Convention be restricted to revising the Articles of Confederation. It was soon decided by the advice of Washington and other leaders, to make a new constitution instead of trying to patch up the old one. Several plans for the new constitution were submitted to the convention by delegates from the various states. The Virginia plan, among other things, provided for a national

legislature of two houses, the members of the lower house to be elected by the states according to their population or wealth, and those of the upper house to be elected by the members of the lower. This plan would give the large states much more power than the small states. The New Jersey plan proposed that the national legislature should consist of one house in which all the states should have the same number of representatives. This would give the small states an advantage and the government would be simply a league of states as before. The matter was finally settled by a compromise, but not until the discussion had nearly broken up the Convention. It was agreed that the national legislature should consist of two houses. The lower house, called the House of Representatives, was to be composed of members elected directly by the people, and the number of members from each state was to be determined by the number of people in that state. The upper house, called the Senate, was to be composed of two members from each state, and they were to be elected by the state legislatures. This was the first great compromise of the Convention. The next compromise was between the northern and southern states over the question as to whether the slaves should be counted as population when apportioning representatives to a state. The southern men wished to have all the slaves counted, while the northern members did not want any of the slaves counted as population. It was compromised by agreeing to allow five slaves to count as three white people when estimating population and national taxes. The third great compromise was over the question of commerce and the importation of slaves. All the southern states were opposed to giving the new government complete control of commerce. South Carolina and Georgia wanted the right to continue the importation of slaves, but nearly all the other states were opposed to this. Finally it was agreed that Congress should have complete control of commerce and that slaves might be imported until 1808.

VI The Constitution

1. *Legislative Department*

The new Constitution provided for a national legislature, called the Congress of the United States, composed of two houses—a lower house, called the House of Representatives, and an upper house called the Senate. The members of the lower house are elected by the people for a term of two years. The national government therefore acts upon each individual citizen, while the government under the Articles of Confederation acted upon the states. This is a most important difference, as it makes our present central government, a national government, while under the Articles of Confederation the government was simply a confederation of states. The members of the Senate are elected by the state legislatures for a term of six years. They represent the states and not the people directly. All the powers not granted to the national government by the Constitution or prohibited to the states by it, still belong to the states, or the people. The Constitution, however, gave the new government all the power necessary for a strong national government.

2. *Executive Department*

The Constitution created a strong executive department. The head of this department is called the President of the United States. He is Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States, and in addition to other important duties, he must defend the Constitution and execute the laws passed by Congress. There is also a vice-president elected at the same time and in the same manner as the President. In order to assist the President, Congress has, from time to time, created a number of executive departments, whose secretaries constitute the President's Cabinet, and are consulted by him on important matters. In addition to his executive duties the President takes an important part in legislation since he may

veto any bill passed by Congress, and such bill cannot then become a law unless it is passed in each house of Congress by a two-thirds vote.

3 *Judicial Department*

The Constitution created a judicial department which was to consist of a Supreme Court of the United States, and of such inferior courts as Congress might see fit to establish. By the wise legislation of Congress the judicial department has become of great importance in our government. In addition to the Supreme Court, which is at the head of the department, a number of lower courts have been created by Congress. All the judges of all these courts are appointed by the President, but each appointment must be confirmed by the Senate. It is the duty of these courts to interpret and apply the laws that relate to the national government. The Constitution, the laws passed by Congress, and the treaties of the United States are interpreted by the regular United States courts. Cases may be tried first in the District Courts, then appealed in succession to the Circuit Courts, Circuit Court of Appeals, and to the Supreme Court. In all cases the decision of the Supreme Court is final. The Supreme Court may declare an act of the President's, or a law passed by Congress unconstitutional and therefore null and void. Thus the Supreme Court is at the very head of the national government. No other judicial body in the world has such power, and in establishing such a body the Constitutional Convention created a new principle of government.

4. *Ratification*

When the Constitution was given to the states for ratification the people soon became divided into two parties, and there began one of the ablest and most remarkable campaigns in the history of America. Many feared that the central government provided was too strong and might become unjust and overthrow the rights of the people.

Those favoring the ratification of the Constitution were called Federalists, and those opposed, Anti-Federalists. Hamilton and Madison were the leaders of those who favored the Constitution, and they did a magnificent work in urging its adoption. The Constitution provided that it should go into effect as soon as ratified by nine states. The nine states necessary had ratified the Constitution by March, 1788, and the others soon followed.

VII Organization of the New Government

By the ratification of the new Constitution, the government created by the Articles of Confederation came to an end. The first presidential election under the Constitution occurred in January, 1789. Washington received every vote, and thus became the first President of the United States. John Adams received the next largest number and became vice-president. Congress at once proceeded to organize the different departments of government in accordance with the Constitution. It passed laws organizing the judicial department, and establishing four cabinet departments. Thus came to an end the Critical Period of American History, and thus went into effect the present Constitution of the United States.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(The Critical Period)

I

Why may the time between 1783 and 1789 be called "The Critical Period of American History"? Describe the nature of the national government during the Revolution until the adoption of the Articles of Confederation in 1781. Describe the nature of the national government provided for by the Articles of Confederation. In what way did the Articles of Confederation assist to bring about the bad condition of affairs that existed during the Critical Period? During this period why were the people opposed to creating a strong central government?

II

To what territory did the Ordinance of 1787 apply? Describe in full the government provided for by this ordinance. Discuss the importance

of this ordinance with regard to slavery and the government of the territories of the United States.

III

Describe the conditions of money and business during the Critical Period. What brought about these conditions?

IV

Describe fully what is meant by "Anarchy and Rebellion" during the Critical Period. How did this threaten the life of the nation? How did these disturbances assist in preparing the way for the adoption of a strong central government?

V

Describe fully the events leading to the Constitutional Convention. Tell what you can about the men that composed the Convention. How was the Convention organized? Did the Convention exceed the purpose for which it was called? Describe fully the Three Great Compromises of the Convention.

VI

(In studying the national government in accordance with the questions which follow, the pupil should make constant use of the Constitution.) For how many departments of government did the new Constitution provide? Compare this plan of government with that which existed during colonial times and also with that which exists in the states at the present time. Describe in a general way the legislative department created by the Constitution. What powers and duties belong to the House of Representatives that do not belong to the Senate? What are the reasons for this? What powers and duties belong to the Senate that do not belong to the House of Representatives? What are the reasons for this? Describe the general powers and duties of Congress. How are Senators and Representatives elected? What is the reason for having a Senator's term of office longer than that of a Representative? Describe in a general way the executive department created by the Constitution. How are the President and vice-president of the United States elected and for how long a term? Describe in full the President's Cabinet and its general powers and duties. Describe fully the general powers and duties of the President. What power has the President in legislation? What are the duties of the vice-president?

Describe in a general way the judicial department created by the Constitution. Describe briefly the different classes of United States courts. Discuss the general powers and duties of the judicial department. Compare with regard to its power the Supreme Court of the United States with the supreme courts of other nations.

When the Constitution was submitted to the people for their approval, why were many opposed to its ratification? Explain fully what is meant

by Federalists and Anti-Federalists during the campaign for the ratification of the Constitution. Who were some of the leading Federalists and Anti-Federalists? Who wrote "The Federalist" and what was its effect on the campaign for the ratification of the Constitution? Discuss briefly the campaign which resulted in the ratification of the Constitution.

VII

Discuss the organization of the new government.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the nature of the National Government during the Critical Period. Discuss the conditions of the country during the Critical Period. Discuss the Ordinance of 1787. Discuss the events which led to the Constitutional Convention. Explain fully the Three Great Compromises. Discuss the National Government provided for by the Constitution. Discuss the ratification of the Constitution.

NATIONAL GROWTH AND EUROPEAN INTERFERENCE

A THE PERIOD OF EUROPEAN INTERFERENCE

I Origin of American Neutrality in European Affairs, 1793
Mc. 206–207; T. 189–190; M. 198–199

II The Jay Treaty, 1795
Mc. 207–209; T. 190–191; M. 202–204

III Breach with France, 1799-1800
Mc. 210–214; T. 194–197; M. 204

IV The Alien and Sedition Acts, 1798
Mc. 211–212; T. 195; M. 205

V The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, 1798-1799
Mc. 212–213; T. 195–196; M. 205

VI The Purchase of Louisiana, 1803
Mc. 218; T. 201–204; M. 208–209

VII European Interference with American Commerce, 1800-1812

1. *Decrees and Orders in Council, 1806-1810*
Mc. 224–227; T. 210–211; M. 211

2. *Jefferson's Embargo Policy, 1807-1809*
Mc. 226–228, 250; T. 211–212; M. 211–212

VIII The War of 1812, or the War for Commercial Independence, 1812-1814

1. *Causes*
Mc. 231; H. III, 228–231; T. 215; M. 215–217

2. *The War on Land*
Mc. 233, 235, 238; H. III, 274–312; T. 216–223; M. 217–218, 222–224

3. *The War on the Sea*
   Mc. 234–237; H. III, 223–255; T. 217–220; M. 218–220, 222–223

4. *Results*
   (a) Treaty of Peace, 1814
   Mc. 239; T. 223–224; M. 224
   (b) Commercial and Industrial Results
   M. 224
   (c) Effect on the Nation
   Mc. 239; T. 229

IX The Hartford Convention, 1814
T. 224–225; M. 224

X Purchase of Florida, 1819
Mc. 260–262; T. 230–231; M. 227

XI The Monroe Doctrine, 1823
Mc. 262–265; T. 238–240; M. 232–233

B FINANCIAL LEGISLATION: THE TARIFF

I Hamilton's Financial Measures, 1790-1791
Mc. 198–202; T. 184–186; M. 197–198
1. *Tariff Duties*
2. *Excise*
3. *Funding of National Debt*
4. *Assumption of State Debts*
5. *Establishment of the United States Bank*

II Jefferson and Gallatin's Financial Policy, 1801-1809
Mc. 216–218

III The National Bank and State Banks
Mc. 255–257; T. 226–227

IV Tariff Legislation

1. *The First Tariff Act, 1789*
   Mc. 197; T. 184; M. 197, 246n
2. *Growth of the Idea of Protection*
   T. 231, 232, 240, 248
3. *Attitude of Sections of the Country*
   Mc. 303; T. 232, 248; M. 245–246

C POLITICAL PARTIES

I Rise of Political Parties
Mc. 170, 202–203; T. 174–175, 189; M. 195

II Fall of the Federalist Party
Mc. 211, 259; T. 195, 198, 225, 228

III The Republican Party
Mc. 215, 229, 259–260, 277, 297–301; T. 198–201, 228–229, 241–242; M. 206

D GROWTH OF THE NATION

I Growth in Territory and Population
Mc. 241, 244–246, 266–268; T. 244

II Movement of Population
Mc. 241–242

1. *Causes*
2. *Direction*

III Results of Westward Expansion

1. *Formation of States*
   Mc. 243–245
2. *Internal Improvements*
   Mc. 251–252, 279–286; T. 209, 233–235, 245; M. 231–232, 235–236

3. *Struggle Over Slavery: The Missouri Compromise, 1820*
   Mc. 274–276; T. 235–238; M. 227–231

IV Growth of National Unity
   (To be discussed by the teacher)

E INSTITUTIONAL LIFE

I Industrial Conditions
   Mc. 301–303

1. *Transportation and Communication*
   Mc. 252–253; H. III, 84–104; T. 212, 233–235, 244

2. *Agriculture*
   Mc. 248–249; T. 244

3. *Commerce*
   Mc. 248–249

4. *Manufactures*
   Mc. 249–250

II Social Conditions
   (To be discussed by the teacher)
   H. III, 56–61, 126–138, 143–149

III Government
   (To be discussed by the teacher)

IV Religion
   (To be discussed by the teacher)
   H. III, 53

V Education
   (To be discussed by the teacher)

NATIONAL GROWTH AND EUROPEAN INTERFERENCE

The history of the United States from the time the new government was organized in the spring of 1789 to the beginning of the Civil War in 1861, may be divided into two periods. The first period extends from 1789 to about 1828, and the second period from about this date to the Civil War. This division is based on strictly historical grounds, and is not made simply as a matter of convenience. The history of the United States during each of these periods was shaped and controlled by many forces and conditions, but there were certain causes and conditions that had the main or controlling effect upon the history of each period. During the greater part of the first period, the interference of foreign nations in the affairs of the United States had a profound, important, and controlling effect on our history. A large part of the legislation of Congress related either directly or indirectly to this interference. This constant meddling in our affairs by Europe led finally to another war with England, which secured for the United States the proper respect and consideration of all the other nations. The main or controlling force in the history of the United States during the second period was the question of slavery in its relation to the westward growth of the nation in territory and population. During both periods the growth of the United States in territory, wealth and population was most rapid and important, but the main question in relation to this growth during the first period was European interference and the main question during the second period was slavery. During the first period, however, slavery was quietly becoming more and more firmly established in the South, but the pressure of foreign nations on the United States and the manner in which the western country was settled, kept this question fairly quiet. The opposition to Europe during the first period tended to unite the American people and to create in them a patriotism and love for the nation and the National government, and to break down the idea of state sovereignty that existed when the Constitution was

adopted. During this first period, however, slavery was quietly causing the social and the industrial conditions of the North and South to become more and more unlike, and during the second period this resulted in bitter discussions that ended in a dreadful Civil War. It therefore becomes plain that the controlling forces or conditions in the history of the United States from 1789 to about 1828 were European interference in our affairs and the rapid growth of the nation in territory and population, and that the controlling force or condition in our history from about 1828 to 1861 was the slavery question in relation to this continued rapid growth of the nation in territory and population. Because of these controlling forces and conditions, the first period will be called, National Growth and European Interference, and the second period will be called, Westward Expansion and Slavery.

THE PERIOD OF EUROPEAN INTERFERENCE

I Origin of American Neutrality in European Affairs, 1793

In 1793 war broke out between France and England. The people of the United States were in favor of assisting France. To do this meant the destruction of American commerce, and war with the English and Indians along the frontier of the United States. It also meant that the United States would be involved in European struggles which did not affect American affairs. The time had come when the United States must decide whether she would meddle in European affairs which did not concern her particularly and which must often involve a useless loss of life and property, or whether she would remain neutral. Washington foresaw the vast importance of this decision, and after mature deliberation announced in a proclamation that the policy of the United States should be non-interference in European affairs. This decision marked Washington as a statesman of the highest rank. The people all over the United States, in mass meetings and through the press, were urging the government to

assist France, but Washington held fast to his purpose, and was finally sustained by Congress. This action on Washington's part was made doubly hard by the presence in America of Genet, an agent of the French government, who roused great enthusiasm among the people, and swung public opinion to the side of the French. By the treaty made with France during the Revolution, the United States was under obligations to aid France in case of war with Great Britain. The United States, however, was not called upon by the French government to fulfill these obligations. The American government would have been placed in an awkward position had such a demand been made. Thus was born American Neutrality and the United States has ever since held steadfastly to this principle. The importance to the United States of this principle or unwritten law can hardly be overestimated. It has saved this nation from many a bloody and useless war, and has permitted it to develop its natural resources unmolested by European quarrels and conflicts. The United States under Washington established the unwritten law that she should not interfere in the affairs of Europe which did not concern her and thirty years later, under Monroe, she established the unwritten law that no European nation should interfere with strictly American affairs unless directly concerned.

II The Jay Treaty, 1795

Some important questions had been left unsettled by the treaty of 1783 at the close of the Revolution, and the war between France and England gave rise to other difficulties, especially concerning American trade. The English insisted on enforcing what is known as the "Rule of 1756" which provided that a neutral could not enjoy in time of war a trade prohibited in time of peace. For instance: The Americans were not allowed to trade with the French West Indies in time of peace, but when the war broke out with England, the French were glad to open their West Indian ports to

American commerce for the sake of obtaining supplies. By the Rule of 1756, which Great Britain now put into force, this trade was forbidden to Americans, and thus their commerce was greatly injured. Another contention arose regarding the right of England to impress British sailors from American vessels into the British navy. England claimed the right to search American vessels anywhere on the seas for British sailors, and to forcibly remove them to British ships. In order to settle these various difficulties, Chief Justice Jay was sent by Washington to England to make a treaty. Some of the provisions of the treaty were not favorable to the United States and there was much adverse discussion before the treaty was finally ratified. While the treaty was not very favorable to American interests it accomplished its purpose—the avoidance of war with England at that time.

III Breach with France, 1796-1799

The Jay treaty gave to England valuable commercial rights. France was irritated by the Genet affair and the Neutrality Proclamation, and the Jay treaty, favorable as it was to England, still further exasperated her. The Genet affair had done much to turn American sympathy from France, and the insults to the American representatives in France—the X. Y. Z. affair—roused the indignation of the United States. For awhile diplomacy seemed unable to avert war between the two countries. In fact fighting actually began on the sea, but the uniform success of the American navy and a change of government in France caused her to re-open diplomatic relations and war was averted.

IV The Alien and Sedition Acts, 1798

The firm stand taken by the Federalists in the trouble with France made Adams and the Federalists very popular, but the passage by Congress of several laws, known as the Alien and Sedition Laws, brought them suddenly into great disfavor. The violent and abusive attacks on the administra-

tion and the Federalist leaders by the Republican papers, a large number of whose editors were foreigners, led to the passage of these laws. The first law against aliens raised the period of residence necessary for naturalization to fourteen years. The act known as the Alien Act gave the President power to deport from the United States any foreigners whom he considered dangerous to the country. The Sedition Act gave the President and the officers of the government the right to imprison and fine those who uttered or wrote anything of a seditious or treasonable nature against the government, or even anything which tended to defame the government or any of its officers. The Sedition Act was aimed against the press, and was the first and last attempt of the national government to interfere with its freedom.

V The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, 1798-1799

The Alien and Sedition Laws were fiercely attacked by the Republicans led by Jefferson and Madison. They felt that the Federalist party was using its power in the government to destroy the rights of the people. This feeling took definite shape in the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky, which passed resolutions on the subject. The Kentucky resolutions were drawn up by Jefferson and were quite radical. They stated that the Constitution was a compact between sovereign states, and that laws passed by Congress which were judged un-constitutional by a state might be declared null and void by that state. The Virginia Resolutions were drawn up by Madison. They also called the Constitution a compact, and put forth nullification as the rightful remedy in case of the passage of laws in violation of the Constitution. Both of these series of resolutions are of great importance because they were the first definite expression of the doctrine of State Rights as opposed to National Sovereignty.

VI The Purchase of Louisiana, 1803

The Mississippi river was the main outlet for the commerce of all the American territory between the Alleghanies and

the Mississippi, hence the possession of the mouth of the great river was a matter of great importance to the settlers of this region. So long as Spain held this, there was little to be feared by the Americans, for Spain was a weak nation, and by a treaty made in 1795 allowed the United States the right of deposit—that is, the right to land merchandise, or to transfer it from river boats and steamers to sea-going vessels—at New Orleans. In 1802 Spain ceded the entire Louisiana territory, including the mouth of the Mississippi, to France. This was a just cause of alarm and protest for the Americans. Napoleon, who was master of France and very powerful in continental Europe at that time, had plans for building up an American Empire, and seemed to be in a position to do so. The closing of the port of New Orleans to American trade at the time of the transfer of the territory from Spain to France brought forth such a protest from the western settlers that Jefferson sent a commission to France to try to buy the territory at the mouth of the river. Napoleon at first refused, but the failure of an expedition to San Domingo, and the renewal of war with England led him to change his mind and he offered to sell not only the land at the mouth of the river, but the whole of the Louisiana territory to the United States. He was afraid that England might get possession of this territory, and, if France must lose it, he preferred that it should belong to the United States. The price paid for this vast domain was only $15,000,000.

During the administrations of Washington and Adams, Jefferson had advocated a strict construction of the Constitution, but in the purchase of Louisiana he gave it a looser construction than the Federalists had ever dared to give.

VII European Interference with American Commerce, 1800-1812

1. *Decrees and Orders in Council, 1806-1810*

From 1803 to 1815, France and England were continuously at war. Each nation tried to injure the other by de-

stroying its commerce. In order to do this the British by "Orders in Council" and Napoleon by "Decrees," would declare the ports of the other to be in a state of blockade, although they were unable to make such blockade effective by actually keeping war vessels at the ports declared blockaded. England and France both claimed the right to take as prizes all merchant vessels trading with the enemy in violation of the commercial regulations which each had issued. This policy, if carried out, would have resulted in the destruction of American commerce. The United States, however, maintained that a neutral state had a right to trade freely with either of the nations at war, unless her ports were actually blockaded. From 1803 to 1809 the dispute on this point between the United States and the two nations at war, England and France, was almost continuous; and on several occasions it came very nearly involving the United States in war. In fact it would have done so had it not been for the weak attitude of Jefferson.

2. *Jefferson's Embargo Policy, 1807-1809*

Jefferson tried to injure first England and then France by having Congress pass what were known as the Non-Importation and the Embargo Acts. The Non-Importation Act forbade the importation of goods from England. The Embargo was much more severe and forbade the sending of any goods from the United States to any foreign nation. As the Embargo bore more heavily on America than on any other nation, it was not a success, and was abandoned. A law forbidding commerce with England or France but allowing it with other nations was passed in place of the Embargo Law, and was much better for American commerce.

VIII The War of 1812, or the War for Commercial Independence, 1812-1814

1. *Causes*

The causes of this war were primarily interference with

American trade, and impressment of American seamen. The character of the United States Congress at this time also had much to do with the bringing on of the war. Very few of the statesmen who controlled affairs during and for a quarter of a century after the Revolution were now members of the national legislature. Statesmen of a younger generation had come into power. They represented the young and rising democracy of America, and especially of the West. They were full of hope and strength, believed in the future greatness of the United States, and were humiliated and annoyed by the continual insults offered this nation by France and England. From the first they were determined to end this humiliation, even though compelled to resort to war. Both England and France were involved in offenses against American commerce and American seamen; but Great Britain was not only the greater offender in these respects, but had also offended in other ways, so war was declared against her. The arrogant bearing of the English leaders toward America was irritating to Americans, and the continual Indian troubles on the frontiers, which were due largely to English influence, also caused bitter feeling.

2. *The War on Land*

In this war the Americans were, as a rule, unsuccessful in their campaigns on land. The soldiers were untrained, and the officers, frequently owing their appointments to political reasons, were generally incompetent. Neither nation, however, was successful in invading the territory of the other. The two most notable events of the war on land were the capture of Washington and the burning of its public buildings by the British, and the disastrous defeat of an army of British veterans at New Orleans by General Jackson.

3. *The War on the Sea*

Although, at the beginning of the war, the Americans had but twelve vessels as against England's twelve hun-

dred, the American navy succeeded in winning a series of brilliant victories, and often against great odds. Because of England's superiority in the number of ships, most of the American vessels were finally either driven from the sea or blockaded in the harbors of the United States. Perhaps even more important than the work of the regular navy was the injury which American privateers did to the commerce of England.

4. *Results*

(a) Treaty of Peace

The points of dispute which caused the war were not mentioned in the treaty of peace. The treaty provided for the restoration of the conquests of both parties, and arranged for the settlement of boundary disputes and other minor points.

(b) Commercial and Industrial Results

The main result of this war was the commercial independence of the United States, and never since then has any nation interfered with American commerce or attempted the impressment of American seamen. The restrictions on commerce during the war caused the birth of American factories by compelling the capitalists, especially in the North, to invest in manufacturing rather than in shipping enterprises, and by compelling the people of the country to rely upon home industry for their manufacturing goods.

(c) Effect on the Nation

The war had the effect of welding the Nation more firmly, and of making it independent not only of Europe, but of its own colonial traditions. It compelled a broader interpretation of the powers of the Constitution. The Nation now took a higher position among the nations of the world than it had held before.

IX The Hartford Convention, 1814

As one of the principal industries of New England was foreign commerce, the Embargo and Non-Importation policy of Jefferson, and especially the Enforcement Act which provided drastic measures for the enforcement of this policy, bore heavily upon the business interests of that section. The people of New England soon became strongly opposed to these laws which interfered with her commerce. In 1809 the legislature of Massachusetts passed resolutions which in spirit were much the same as the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions. New England was strongly Federalist, and was vigorously opposed to Jefferson and the principles of the Republican party. The people of New England were also inclined to be friendly with England because of commercial relations with that nation, and were therefore opposed to the War of 1812. As this war progressed, New England became still more strongly opposed to it, and events seemed to indicate that her leaders were contemplating some kind of armed resistance to the national government. In 1814 delegates from the various New England states met in convention at Hartford, Connecticut, to consider plans for unity of action on the part of New England. This convention conducted its proceedings behind closed doors, and drew up resolutions declaring, among other things, that when the Constitution was violated by acts of Congress, it became the duty of a state to interpose its authority. The Convention sent a delegate to Congress bearing these and other resolutions of similar nature, but before the delegate reached Congress, peace was declared.

X The Purchase of Florida, 1819

The United States had long wished to secure the Floridas, and during the war of 1812 had seized a part of West Florida. Spain was unable to govern well her possessions so far from home, and Florida was in a constant turmoil. It was made a refuge by all sorts of criminals, and was the source of con-

stant trouble to the United States. The invasion of Florida by an expedition under Andrew Jackson which had been sent against the Seminole Indians in Georgia, brought matters to a crisis. This resulted in Spain's selling East Florida to the United States for $5,000,000 and giving up all her claims to West Florida. The United States, at the same time, gave up its claim to Texas.

XI The Monroe Doctrine, 1823

About 1815 Russia announced that she claimed the Pacific Coast from Alaska down to the 51st parallel, and that no foreign vessel should approach within one hundred miles of the shore. It was her evident intention to extend her influence southward and to shut out the United States from the Pacific Coast. John Quincy Adams, as Secretary of State, entered a vigorous protest against these designs of Russia, in which he stated that neither North nor South America was open to further European colonization. Between 1810 and 1822 all of the Spanish-American colonies in North and South America, taking advantage of the weakened condition of Spain, threw off Spanish authority and established independent republics, which were recognized by the United States as independent powers. These republics included Mexico and all of South America save Brazil, which still belonged to Portugal. In 1815 nearly all of the European powers, except England, formed what is known as the Holy Alliance, their object being to perpetuate monarchical government and to assist Spain in the recovery of her lost possessions. Great Britain proposed that the United States combine with her against this Holy Alliance. The United States declined to act in concert with Great Britain, but President Monroe, at the suggestion of Adams, included in his annual message to Congress a statement known as the Monroe Doctrine. This statement defined the attitude of the United States on the question of European colonization in the New World and European interference with American republics.

The doctrine has ever since been adhered to by the United States, and in substance is as follows:

1. European nations will not be permitted to establish any new colonies in America or to add any more territory to those already existing.

2. European nations will not be permitted to interfere with the internal affairs of American republics.

The Monroe Doctrine was the logical result of the principle of American Neutrality established by Washington.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(The Period of European Interference.)

Into what two periods does the history of the United States between 1789 and 1860 naturally divide itself? Why may the first period be called National Growth and European Interference? Why may the second period be called Westward Expansion and Slavery?

I

Why did so many of the Americans wish to assist France in the war which broke out between England and France in 1793? Why did Washington issue his Neutrality Proclamation? Describe the Genet affair. Under what obligations was the United States to France? Discuss the importance of American Neutrality in European Affairs. How is this related to the Monroe Doctrine?

II

Explain the "Rule of 1756." Illustrate how it was applied to America. Describe the impressment policy of Great Britain. What were the terms of Jay's treaty? How was it received in the United States?

III

How did France regard the Jay treaty? What was the effect of the Genet affair and the Neutrality Proclamation on France? Explain the X. Y. Z affair. How was the difficulty between France and the United States finally settled?

IV

What stand had the Federalists taken in the trouble with France? What was the position of the Republicans? What led to the passage of the Alien and Sedition Laws? Discuss the provisions of each of these laws.

V

Upon what grounds did the Republicans oppose the Alien and Sedition Laws? How did these laws lead to the passage of the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions? Who was the author of the Kentucky resolutions? What was their nature? Who drew up the Virginia resolutions? How did they differ from the Kentucky resolutions? Why are these resolutions important?

VI

Why did the western settlers desire the possession of the mouth of the Mississippi River? Why did the United States object to the passing of this territory into the hands of the French? What caused Jefferson to attempt to buy the territory at the mouth of the river? What conditions in Europe made Napoleon willing to sell the entire Louisiana territory? Why did he sell it to the United States? How did this purchase force the Republican party to change its attitude as to the construction of the Constitution?

VII

Explain the British "Orders in Council" and the French "Decrees." How did they injure America? How did Jefferson try to retaliate? What was the effect of his Embargo policy on America? Why was it not a success?

VIII

Discuss the causes leading to the War of 1812. How did the character of the United States Congress tend to bring on war at this time? Describe the land campaigns of this war. Compare the American and British navies. Describe the work of the American navy and privateers. Discuss the terms of the treaty of peace which was signed after the close of the war. Why is this war called the "Second War of Independence"? What was the effect of the war upon industrial conditions in the United States? What was its effect on national feeling? Describe the effect of the war on the position of the United States among other nations.

IX

Why were the people of New England opposed to the War of 1812? Discuss the causes and nature of the Hartford Convention.

X

Why did the United States wish to buy Florida? What caused Spain to be willing to sell it? What were the terms of the purchase?

XI

Describe the claims of Russia on the Pacific Coast. Describe the conditions in the Spanish-American colonies which led to the formation

of the Holy Alliance. What was the nature and object of the Holy Alliance? State the provisions of the Monroe Doctrine. How is this Doctrine related to Washington's Neutrality Proclamation?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the reasons for the division of United States history from 1789 to 1861 into two periods, and the predominating influence of each period. Discuss the origin of American neutrality in European affairs, and show its importance as a principle. Discuss the conditions leading to the making of the Jay treaty. Discuss the treaty and its effect. Discuss the difficulties with France during the early part of this period. Discuss the Alien and Sedition Acts. Discuss the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions. Describe the conditions in America and in Europe that led to the purchase of Louisiana by the United States. Discuss the effect of this purchase on political parties and the general government. Describe the "Orders in Council," and "Decrees," and their effect on American commerce. Discuss Jefferson's embargo policy. Discuss the causes of the War of 1812. Discuss the industrial and political results of the War of 1812. Discuss the Hartford Convention. Compare the principles set forth in this convention with those of the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions. Discuss the purchase of Florida. Discuss the conditions leading to the setting forth of the Monroe Doctrine. Discuss the Monroe Doctrine and its relation to Washington's Neutrality Proclamation.

FINANCIAL LEGISLATION: THE TARIFF

I Hamilton's Financial Measures, 1790-1791

The new government found the national treasury empty, with a debt of about $54,000,000 on hand, and the credit of the United States both at home and among foreign nations almost worthless. Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, brought forward a plan for placing the financial affairs of the government on a firm foundation. This plan proved him to be one of the ablest financiers in the United States. His plan was as follows:

1. A slight increase in the duties laid by the first tariff.

2. An excise or internal tax to be placed on distilled liquors.

3. The funding of the National Debt. The old bonds of the nation had fallen to twenty-five per cent of their face value. New United States bonds were to be issued for the total face value of the old and exchanged for them.

4. The assumption of state debts. Debts contracted by the states during the Revolution for its support were to be assumed and paid in full by the national government.

5. Establishment of the United States Bank. The management of the bank was to be private, but the United States was to be a large share holder, reserving the right of examining into its financial condition. His object here was to enable the government to manage its financial affairs more easily and to give stability to money matters throughout the country.

After much discussion Hamilton's entire plan for establishing the credit of the national government was adopted. The result of its operation was better than Hamilton himself had dared hope. The credit of the United States was firmly established, both at home and abroad. It was not long before a dollar's worth of United States bonds was worth

a dollar of gold in London, whereas before a dollar's worth of these bonds was worth less than twenty-five cents. The success of this plan tended to give the people confidence in the strength, power, and dignity of the national government.

II Jefferson and Gallatin's Financial Policy, 1801-1809

The public debt of the United States had increased from about $77,000,000 in 1792 to nearly $83,000,000 in 1800. The income had increased in the same period from less than $4,000,000 to more than $10,000,000. Jefferson advocated a reduction of public expenses in order to lessen the taxes and to pay the public debt. The Secretary of the Treasury, Albert Gallatin, formed a plan for the carrying out of this policy. The reduction in expense was accomplished by reducing the army about one-half, and the navy from twenty-seven vessels in commission for service to seven, and by stopping all construction of vessels for the navy. This was practically the destruction of the military defenses of the Nation, but this policy, together with other measures, was so successful in accomplishing its purpose that by 1808 the public debt had been reduced to $45,000,000 and the taxes had been reduced more than $1,000,000, although the expenses of the government had constantly increased, and Louisiana had been bought and paid for in this period. Gallatin's success marks him as a financier of great ability.

III The National Bank and State Banks

At the time of the establishment of the National Bank in 1791 there were only four State banks in existence; when the twenty year charter of the National Bank expired in 1811, there were eighty-eight of these state banks in existence, and in the three years following, this number was more than doubled. In general these State banks were hostile to the National bank, for they hoped to secure its business and the government deposits. Some of the states were interested in these banks, and for that and other reasons took action

in their legislatures against renewing the charter of the National Bank. Many feared the influence of this bank as a monopoly, and also as a corrupt factor in politics. All these and other influences prevented the renewal of the charter in 1811, and thus during the war of 1812, when most needed, a tried and solid financial system was lacking in the United States. At the close of the war the financial affairs of the nation were in a bad condition and because of this, Congress in 1816, renewed the charter of the United States Bank for a period of twenty years.

IV Tariff Legislation

1. *The First Tariff Act, 1789*

In order to secure revenue for the new government the first Congress at once proceeded to levy import duties. During the discussion of the bill for this purpose, the question as to whether one of the main objects of import duties should be the protection of American industries, was first brought before the American people. The main object of this bill as passed was the obtaining of revenue, but the law was also protective in a small measure.

2. *Growth of the Idea of Protection*

Up to 1816 there was very little change in the tariff policy of the United States. While the duties were changed and in many cases increased from time to time, the principle of tariff for revenue chiefly remained the same. The War of 1812, however, had aided the development of American manufactures and their protection and encouragement by the government became a matter of great importance. This led to the passing of a tariff law in 1816 which had for its express purpose the protection of American industries. This principle was established still more firmly by the passage in 1824 of a still higher protective tariff.

3. *Attitude of Sections of the Country*

There was practically no opposition to the tariff policy of the government up to the adoption of the principle of protection. Even in 1816 the opposition was not strong, but in the few years following it gathered strength, especially in the South. The northern and eastern states had developed valuable manufacturing interests, and these sections were, as a whole, favorable to a protective policy. The South, on the other hand, had remained almost entirely agricultural, and had developed no manufacturing interests of importance. The people of the South, therefore, thought they had nothing to gain by the principle of protection, and became strongly opposed to it. While those in New England who were engaged in manufacturing favored a protective tariff, those who were engaged in foreign commerce were opposed to it from the first.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Financial Legislation)

I

Discuss the financial condition of the national government when first organized under the Constitution. Explain the provisions of Hamilton's financial plan. Explain what is meant by funding a debt. What was Hamilton's object in funding the national debt? What was his object in the assumption of state debts by the national government? Why was there so much opposition to this measure? How was it finally carried? Describe the National Bank as proposed by Hamilton. Give the substance of the arguments for and against the Bank. What was the effect of the adoption of Hamilton's financial measures?

II

Describe in a general way the financial condition of the Nation at the beginning of Jefferson's administration and his financial policy. Discuss Gallatin's plan for the reduction of the taxes and expenses of the government.

III

Discuss the rise of State Banks. What prevented the renewal of the charter of the National Bank in 1811? What caused its renewal in 1816?

IV

Describe the nature of the first tariff law. Explain the difference between a tariff for revenue and a tariff for protection. What caused the growth of the idea of tariff for protection? Explain the nature of the tariff law of 1816. Show how the principle of tariff for the purpose of the protection of American industries became more firmly established during this period. Explain the attitude of the South toward a protective tariff. Why did the northern and eastern states form a tariff for protection of manufactures?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the object and nature of Hamilton's financial plan. Describe Gallatin's and Jefferson's financial policy. Describe the growth of State banks and their relation to the National Bank. Trace the history of the National Bank during this period. Discuss the tariff legislation of this period, showing the growth of the idea of protection. Discuss the attitude of the different sections of the country toward the protective principle of the tariff.

POLITICAL PARTIES

I Rise of Political Parties

Political parties in the United States had their real origin during Washington's administration. They began with the difference of opinion on the part of the people and statesmen of the United States as to the nature of the new government. Section 8, Article I, of the Constitution, after enumerating specific duties of Congress, says that Congress shall have power "To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof." Washington, Hamilton and Adams were the leaders of those who thought that the Constitution should be loosely interpreted; that is, that this clause should be taken to mean that the new government should exercise not only the powers specifically granted to it by the Constitution, but that it should also assume such implied powers as might be necessary or even expedient to carry out those powers specifically given to it. They wished to centralize the government, and believed that it should be controlled by the well-born, educated and wealthy classes. Jefferson and Madison were the leaders of those who believed that the Constitution should be strictly construed; that Congress should assume only such implied powers as were absolutely necessary to carry out the powers specifically given to it. They did not believe that the government should be centralized or controlled by the upper classes. They had faith in the common people, and believed that the affairs of government could be safely entrusted to them. But while Jefferson held these democratic views, his ideas were very different from those represented by the rising democracy which came into power with the election of Jackson in 1828. During his administration, Jefferson, in a measure, became converted to the loose construction of the Constitution. Washington, Hamilton and

Adams and their followers became known as the Federalist party, and Jefferson and his party were called the Anti-Federalist or Republican party.

II Fall of the Federalist Party

During the first years of the government under the Constitution the Federalist party was supreme. Washington and John Adams were Federalist presidents, Washington's term lasting from 1789 to 1797, and Adams's from 1797 to 1801. To that party must be given the credit of establishing the government upon a sound and not too radical basis. Yet it was doomed by its very makeup to early destruction. It was out of harmony with the rising democratic spirit of the Republic, and its fall marked not only the end of a political party, but also the passing of the old aristocratic ideas of government from American political life. The chief cause of the fall of the Federalist party was its theory of government by the leaders rather than by the mass of the people, which was not in accord with the democratic tendencies of the age, and it was this that made the fall of the party permanent. The passage of the Alien and Sedition Acts brought a great deal of unpopularity on the party, which was further weakened by internal dissensions. The opposition of the Federalists to the War of 1812 gave the death blow to their already fallen party.

III The Republican Party

While the Federalists did not entirely disappear as a politi cal party until after the War of 1812, they lost most of their importance in political life after the election of Jefferson in 1800, and the rest of this period was a period of Republican supremacy. The rapid growth of the West was an important factor in the growth of the Republican party. The new states carved out of the territory west of the Alleghanies represented the rising democracy of the republic — the belief that one man is as good as another irrespective of his wealth or birth. The effect of this belief in American politics is first

seen in the election of Jefferson, and later in the election of the war congress of 1811–12. Jefferson was the first Republican president, holding that office from 1801 to 1809. He was followed by Madison, 1809–1817. Monroe, who was president from 1817 to 1825 was nominally a Republican president, but his administration was characterized by an almost total lack of party feeling, so much so that this period is commonly known as the "Era of good feeling." John Quincy Adams was the fourth of the Republican presidents, and it was during his administration that the party broke up into personal factions.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Political Parties)

I

What caused the rise of political parties? (The "elastic clause" of the Constitution should be studied by every pupil.) What is meant by "loose interpretation" of the Constitution? Who were the leaders of those who believed that the constitution should be loosely interpreted? What were they called and what were their ideas of government? Who were the leaders of those who believed in the strict interpretation of the Constitution? What was their party called? How did their ideas of government differ from those of the Federalists? Which tended to create a more strongly centralized government, broad or strict construction of the Constitution? What caused the Republicans to become more in favor of broad construction?

II

Describe the work of the Federalist party. Explain how its ideas of government were out of harmony with the spirit of the times. How did this affect the party? What was the effect of the passage of the Alien and Sedition Acts on the Federalist party? Why did the Federalists oppose the war of 1812 and what was the effect of their opposition on their party?

III

Explain how the growth of the West aided the growth of the Republican party. What were the more important measures of this party? Why was Monroe's administration called the "Era of good feeling"?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the origin of political parties. Discuss the principles and leaders of the Federalist and Republican parties. Give the causes of the fall of the Federalist party. Discuss the growth of the Republican party.

GROWTH OF THE NATION

I Growth in Territory and Population

At the close of the Revolution the territory of the United States extended from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from Canada to Florida. Of all this vast area of over 800,000 square miles, less than 300,000 were occupied; and of the 3,000,000 inhabitants, the great mass lived east of the Appalachian mountains. By the end of this period (1828) the area of the United States had increased — through the acquisition of the Louisiana territory in 1803 and of Florida in 1819 — to more than 2,000,000 square miles, of which 600,000 were settled. The population had reached nearly 12,000,000, the increase in the West being much more rapid than in the East.

II Movement of Population

1. *Causes*

From early colonial times settlers had been slowly moving westward in search of new homes, chiefly along the Ohio. The depression in business affairs immediately after the Revolution led to a great increase of migration westward, and to the settling of the territory between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi. It was true throughout this period — in fact even to the present day — that whenever there were hard times in the East with lack of business and scarcity of money, there was a rush of settlers westward. Land was cheap, fertile and well watered, and men welcomed the opportunity to build up homes and fortunes in a new country. The immigration of foreigners also aided this movement, though at that time it had not become a factor of great importance.

2. *Direction*

All this migration was along two definite courses which ran westward in parallel lines from the northern and

southern sections of the country bordering on the Atlantic. As the settlers moved from these sections, they carried with them into the new territory, their customs and institutions, and thus the nation developed along parallel lines running east and west. Thus in the southern part of the western territory the same industrial and social conditions prevailed as in the southern states, and slavery became established with the settlement of the country. In the northern part of this new territory the ideas and institutions of the northern Atlantic states prevailed, and consequently slavery was not established.

III Results of Westward Expansion

1. *Formation of States*

In the organization of this new territory, the Ordinance of 1787 was followed. The rapid settlement of the western lands soon led to the formation of new states in accordance with the provisions of this Ordinance. The first state carved out of this western country, Kentucky, was admitted into the Union in 1792, and others soon followed. In 1828 the Union contained twenty-four states — almost twice the original number — of which nine were in the Mississippi valley. Thus the influence of the West became an important factor in national affairs. In character the constitutions of these states were very democratic — much more so than in the East. This was due to the conditions of frontier life where every man stood on an equality with every other man, dependent on his own efforts.

2. *Internal Improvements*

The rapid growth of the West and the consequent increase in the volume of its commerce made it necessary and valuable to both the East and West to open up highways between the two sections. The matter of building roads, bridges, canals, and improving the rivers by the aid

of the national government was early taken up by Congress and became a political issue. The first work of this kind undertaken by the government was the building of the Cumberland road between the Ohio river and the Potomac. Although internal improvements were constantly discussed, nothing more was done by the national government during this period. The states however took up the work. New York completed the Erie Canal in 1825, and this canal has become an important factor in the nation's commerce. Other states also built important canals, roads and bridges.

3. *Struggle Over Slavery: The Missouri Compromise, 1820*

The westward expansion of the nation led to the first struggle over slavery. Slavery had existed in all the colonies, but the fact that slaves could not be used with profit in the North brought about the abolition of slavery in New England and in nearly all the middle states, and its prohibition in the Northwest Territory. The fact that there were but few slaves in the North caused a moral sentiment to grow up slowly against slavery there, and this sentiment aided the industrial conditions in causing its abolition. In the South, on the other hand, slavery had become still more firmly entrenched in the industrial and social life. As has been said, the settlers of the western territory moved directly west from the Atlantic states, carrying their institutions with them. Consequently, as this territory was organized into states, these states were free or slave, according to the convictions of the settlers and to whether the states lay north or south of the Ohio river. The application of Missouri, the first state lying wholly west of the Mississippi, for admission into the Union led to a discussion of the extension of slavery into the Louisiana territory, which was finally settled by the Missouri Compromise.

This compromise had its origin in the desire of the free and the slave sections of the nation each to prevent the

other from securing the larger number of representatives in the United States Senate. The northern states, having a larger population than the southern, would always have a majority in the House of Representatives. The southern states, knowing this, were determined to control as many votes in the Senate as the northern states, and thus be in a position to prevent any legislation injurious to slavery interests. In order to retain this control a slave state must be admitted into the Union with every free state. Up to 1818 this plan had been followed carefully and of the twenty-two states then forming the Union, eleven were free and eleven were slave. To preserve this balance required that the territory included in the Louisiana Purchase should be half slave and half free. The North was determined that slavery should not be admitted into this new territory. When in 1818 Missouri applied for admission as a state, violent discussion arose. The House would not permit Missouri to enter as a slave state, and the Senate would not allow slavery to be prohibited. In 1820 Maine applied for admission to the Union as a free state. The southern members of Congress would not consent to the admission of Maine unless Missouri were allowed to enter as a slave state. As a compromise it was finally decided:

(1) Maine should be admitted as a free state, and Missouri as a slave state.

(2) The Louisiana Purchase should be divided by the parallel of 36° 30′ and in all territory north of the line, excepting Missouri, slavery should be forever prohibited.

It was generally thought that this Compromise had settled the dispute regarding slavery by restricting its area, but because of the acquisition of new territory, and because of the difference in the industrial and social conditions of the North and South, it could result only in postponing the final conflict.

IV Growth of National Unity

Just as at the time of the Revolution the danger from England had forced the colonies to act in unity, during this period the continual interference of Europe in American affairs, directly and indirectly, in a general way tended to the growth of American national unity. Especially was this true of the war of 1812. The resentment of English and French outrages united the people as nothing else had done and the successful conclusion of the war strengthened this unity of feeling. This war practically ended direct interference of the European nations in American affairs and left the nation united and in a position to develop a true national life. The acquisition of Louisiana was nationalizing in its effects, for in its purchase, organization and government the national government was forced to assume and exercise powers far greater than any specifically granted by the Constitution. This forced the Republican party to adopt the nationalizing policy to which it was at first so much opposed, and as the Republican party was supreme from 1801 to the end of this period, its work in advancing this policy was of great importance. The rapid growth of the West was a most important factor in the growth of national unity. The men who settled this new country went into the West under the protection and government of the nation, not of the state; their state governments had to be created by their own efforts, and naturally were subordinate to the national government in every way, in their minds. There was no state jealousy which would tend to hinder the exercise of national authority, hence the influence of the West was strongly for nationality. The Supreme Court of the United States in a series of important decisions established still more firmly the supremacy of the national government, and in many cases specifically defined the limits of the state governments. Among the more important of these cases were:

(1) McCulloch vs. Maryland. In this case the state of Maryland attempted to tax the United States Bank, but the Supreme Court held that it could not be taxed because it was in part a national institution.

(2) Fletcher vs. Peck. In this case the court held that the state of Georgia could not revoke grants of lands even if they had been obtained by fraud, because it would be the violation of contract which the national constitution says shall not be impaired.

(3) Dartmouth College Case. In this case New Hampshire attempted to modify the charter of Dartmouth College, but the court held that it could not be done because it would impair the obligation of contract.

The chief influence working against the growth of nationality was slavery. While it was not an active factor during this period, yet it was surely though slowly undermining the unity of the nation by causing the North and South to develop industrially and socially along entirely different lines. Thus different interests sprang up in the two sections, and the conditions which caused the conflict of the following period were definitely shaping themselves. The attitude of the two sections of the country, and the strength of slavery in the South, is shown in the Missouri Compromise which was the first struggle of the long conflict that came to predominate all questions and to threaten the existence of the nation.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Growth of the Nation)

I

Compare the total area of the United States at the close of the Revolutionary War with that at the end of this period (1828). Compare the settled area of the United States at these different times showing the direction in which the settled area was growing. Compare the population at the close of the Revolution with that in 1828. (Each pupil should draw a map illustrating the growth of the total and settled areas of the United States.)

II

Why did settlers in colonial times move westward along the Ohio? What caused the first large immigration to the country west of the Alleghanies? What conditions have always caused a rush of settlers westward? How did foreign immigration aid in this westward movement? Explain fully why industrial and social conditions in the western country north of the Ohio were very similar to those which existed in the Northern Atlantic states, and why the industrial and social conditions in the western country south of the Ohio were very similar to those which existed in the Southern Atlantic states.

III

In what way did the Ordinance of 1787 affect the organization of all the western territory? Describe the organization of new states. Describe the character of the constitutions of the new western states. To what conditions was the character of these constitutions due? How did the growth of the West make the matter of internal improvements one of national importance? What is meant by internal improvements? Describe the work of this kind done by the national government during this period. Describe the building of the Erie canal and discuss the importance of this canal. Describe the work done by the other states.

What caused the abolition of slavery in the northern states? How was the territory west of the Alleghanies divided as to slavery? Why did the application of Missouri for admission to the Union cause a struggle over slavery? Describe the conditions in the national legislature which made the southern states anxious to have Missouri admitted as a slave state. What was the attitude of the northern states? How was the matter finally compromised? What was the effect of this compromise?

IV

How did the interference of Europe in American affairs aid the growth of American national unity? What was the effect of the War of 1812 on national life? How did the acquisition of Louisiana aid in the growth of national unity? In what way did the development of the west affect this growth? Show how the Supreme Court by important decisions established more firmly the supremacy of the national government. Show the importance of each of these decisions. How was slavery working against the growth of nationality?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the growth of the United States in territory and population during this period. Discuss the causes of westward migration. Discuss the industrial and social conditions of the western country and their relation to those of the Atlantic states. Describe the formation of new states in the western territory. Discuss internal improvements during this period. Discuss the Missouri Compromise. Discuss the growth of national unity during this period.

INSTITUTIONAL LIFE

During the period from 1789 to 1828, institutional life in the United States was gradually changing from colonial conditions. In the matter of government and social life, there was a marked growth toward democracy. The aristocratic forms, ceremonies and distinctions based on class, were gradually dying out except in the South. The democratic ideas that led to the election of Jackson in 1828, worked a great change in social conditions. This period also witnessed the beginning of the industrial growth and expansion of the nation. In religious affairs a much more liberal spirit gradually developed, and there was also a distinct improvement in education.

I Industrial Conditions

The underlying factor of the industrial development of the nation, especially in the South, during this and the following period was slavery. While its importance as an industrial factor was not recognized at this time, it was determining to a large extent the development of the nation by causing the development of different interests in the northern and southern sections. The invention of the cotton gin and the great improvement in weaving machinery which increased many fold the demand for raw cotton in both Europe and America, made slaves of more value not only in the cotton raising states but also in those states that raised slaves for the market. These conditions served to fasten slavery still more firmly on the South, while in the northern states where slavery did not exist to any extent, other interests grew up. Slavery caused the laborers from foreign countries to avoid the South and to go into the North where free labor prevailed. Thus the North rapidly outgrew the South in free population. Since by the character of its labor, the South could take little part in the commercial and manufacturing development of the nation, it soon began to fall behind the northern states in wealth. Thus the two sections of the nation continued to drift apart industrially.

1. *Transportation and Communication*

While the means of transportation and communication existing in 1828 seem very poor when compared with those of the present time, they were far in advance of those of the colonies. The invention and introduction of steamboats was the main feature of improvement in transportation during this time, and was very important in its effect on both industrial and social conditions. The steamboat was one of the main factors in opening up the western country which exerted so much influence on the whole institutional life of the nation. The building of roads, canals, and bridges by the various states also had an important effect on industrial conditions, because it brought the sections of the country together and broadened the field of industrial expansion.

2. *Agriculture*

During this period the nation was, as a whole, agricultural. Although other industries had been established in the northern states, the South had remained entirely agricultural. This, as has been stated, was due largely to slavery. At the time of the formation of the Constitution there had been a strong sentiment against slavery in some of the southern states, but this gradually died out after the invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney in 1793. This invention made the cotton crop one of immense value in the South. Rice, tobacco and cotton were the great southern staples, but Virginia and neighboring states became wheat producers also during this period, and raised large quantities for export. In the middle and northern states large amounts of food products were raised and exported, but commercial and manufacturing interests took much of the attention of the people of those sections. The western country was almost entirely agricultural.

3. *Commerce*

Commerce now became a very important factor in national development. During the Revolution the commerce of the nation was almost entirely destroyed, but it soon sprang up again. The constant warfare of European nations in the first part of this period gave America a great opportunity, and a large foreign commerce was built up by the middle and northern states. Jefferson's Embargo policy and the war of 1812 for a time hindered the development of commerce, but in general the period was one of great commercial prosperity and expansion.

4. *Manufactures*

At the time of the adoption of the Constitution, American manufacturing consisted chiefly of the household manufacture of articles of common use. Inventions of machinery and the great increase in the amount of cotton raised by the South led to the early establishment of cotton mills in New England, and this industry increased until by 1828 hundreds of thousands of men and women were employed in the many great factories in which were invested many millions of dollars. The rise of woolen mills was nearly as rapid though not beginning so early. The iron industry was developed in Pennsylvania to a considerable extent, and the foundation laid for its greater development in the following period. Jefferson's Embargo Policy and the War of 1812 were very beneficial to American manufactures, for by shutting out foreign commerce they forced the people to establish manufactures of various kinds, and by the injury done to commerce they served to turn capital to manufacturing instead. By 1816 the manufactures had become of such importance that it was deemed necessary to establish a protective tariff for their encouragement. By 1828 the value of manufactures in the United States amounted to many hundreds of millions of dollars. This

advance had taken place almost entirely in the northern states, the South having done very little in the way of building up manufactures or commerce.

II Social Conditions

During the first part of this period the social conditions were much like those of Colonial times, the same aristocratic ideas in a measure prevailing. But there was a distinct advance during this period, especially during the latter part, in democratic ideals and modes of living. This was due largely to the development of the West, which was very democratic, owing to the manner of its settlement and to the equality of its settlers. This growth in democracy is shown in many ways. Washington was inaugurated with a great deal of pomp and ceremony; this was largely done away with by Jefferson, and still greater simplicity was introduced by later Presidents in accordance with the democratic tendencies of the times. At the time of the adoption of the Constitution the dress of the wealthier classes was very rich and elaborate, as during colonial times; this too was changed gradually, men of all classes coming to wear more nearly the same style and quality of clothing. The growth in democracy is also shown in the extension of the franchise. While in 1800 only about one person in thirty-five could vote, by 1828 about one person in ten had the privilege of the suffrage. This change was due to the abolishing of property and other qualifications, in which the new western states led. These democratic ideas were introduced much more slowly in the South on account of the plantation system of living, and the holding of slaves, which served to keep up class distinctions which were rapidly dying out in the commercial and manufacturing states.

III Government

There was little change in the institution of government during this period, the main lines of the development of the

United States in this respect having been laid down during the preceding periods. The organization and government of all the newly acquired territory was based on the Ordinance of 1787. The formation of state governments proceeded on the same lines as those of the state governments formed during the Revolution, which in turn were based on the governments of the colonies. Changes in the national government consisted merely in the rational development of the principles of the Constitution.

IV Religion

During this period the old intolerance was broken down and complete religious liberty was established. At the time of the Revolution religious qualifications were required of public officers and in many cases of voters, in nearly all the states. These were largely done away with during the period immediately following the Revolution, and Church and State soon became completely separated in all the states. Many new sects came into existence, and national organizations of the various churches were formed.

V Education

While the advance in education and in the intellectual life of the nation is not so remarkable as that in other respects, the improvement over the conditions of Colonial times is considerable. Common schools were established throughout the western country as they were also in the eastern part of the United States. These schools were provided for by the sale of public lands, and by taxation. Numerous academies and colleges sprang up, and high schools began to be established in the East. Improved methods of teaching and study were introduced to some extent, and greater attention was paid to the sciences than during the colonial period. In the matter of the general education of the people there was a distinct advance, this being a natural part of the democratic tendencies of the period.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Industrial Conditions)

I

Explain how slavery was causing the industrial conditions of the North and South to develop along different lines. What was the effect of the invention of the cotton-gin on the growth of slavery in the South? Why did the North outgrow the South in free population? Why did the South fall behind the North in wealth?

Discuss the invention of the steam boat and its importance in the opening up of the West. How did the building of roads, canals and bridges by the states affect industrial conditions?

How did cotton come to be the leading southern product? Describe the agricultural conditions in Virginia and neighboring states. Why was agriculture becoming of less relative importance in the North?

What was the condition of American commerce at the close of the Revolution? How did European affairs during the first part of this period aid the commerce of the United States? What sections of the country built up a large foreign commerce? What section of the country made little advance in this direction? Why? What was the effect of Jefferson's embargo policy and the War of 1812 on American commerce?

What was the condition of manufactures in the United States at the close of the Revolution? What caused the establishment of cotton mills in New England? Describe the growth of the cotton spinning and weaving industries. What other manufactures were developed in New England and the middle states? What was the effect of Jefferson's embargo policy and the War of 1812 on American manufactures? Describe the growth of manufactures. Why did the South do little toward building up manufactures?

II

Compare the ceremonies of Washington's inauguration with those of Jefferson's. What does this show as to the advance of democracy in social conditions? How did the development of the West aid the growth of democratic ideals and modes of living? What general changes in dress were made during this period? How is the breaking down of class distinctions shown in the political life of the nation? Why did the democratic ideas gain a hold more slowly in the South than in other parts of the country?

III

What changes were made in national and state government during this period?

IV

What change in religious conditions occurred during this period?

V

Discuss the establishment of common schools in the western country. How were these schools provided for? What can you say of the advance in the general education of the people of the United States during this period?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the effect of slavery upon the industrial development of the United States during this period. Discuss the improvements in means of transportation and communication, and their effect on industrial and social life. Discuss agricultural conditions in the various sections of the nation. Discuss the growth of American commerce and manufactures. Discuss the changes in social conditions. Show that there was a marked growth toward democracy in government and social life during this period.

WESTWARD EXPANSION AND SLAVERY

A POLITICAL METHODS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

I MEANING OF JACKSON'S ELECTION
Mc. 301; T. 249–251; M. 240–241

II POLITICAL METHODS

1. *The Spoils System*
Mc. 294–295; T. 251–252; M. 241–242

2. *The Nominating Convention*
Mc. 306

3. *Campaigns*
Mc. 315–316; T. 275–276; M. 258–259

4. *Party Organization and Party Platforms*
(To be discussed by the teacher)

III POLITICAL PARTIES

1. *The Democratic Party*
Mc. 311, 312, 346, 352–353, 360–361; T. 286, 306, 316, 322

2. *The Whig Party*
Mc. 307, 312, 316, 334–335, 352; T. 248, 306

3. *The Republican Party*
Mc. 354–355, 363; T. 315–316, 322

B FINANCIAL LEGISLATION: THE TARIFF

I THE TARIFF

1. *The Tariff of 1828; Nullification and Secession*
Mc. 303–305; T. 247–248, 254–256; M. 245–249

2. *The Compromise Tariff of 1833*
Mc. 305; T. 256; M. 249

3. *The Walker Tariff, 1846*
   T. 296—297

II Destruction of the National Bank
   Mc. 305–308; T. 253–254; M. 245

III The Panic of 1837
   1. *Era of Speculation*
      Mc. 308–309; T. 272; M. 253–254
   2. *The Specie Circular*
      Mc. 309; T. 272
   3. *Distribution of the Surplus*
      Mc. 309–310; T. 270–271
   4. *The Crisis*
      Mc. 310–311; T. 272; M. 253

IV The Independent or Sub-Treasury System
   Mc. 311–312; T. 273–274, 296; M. 254–255

C WESTWARD EXPANSION

I Annexation of Texas, 1845
   Mc. 320–322; T. 284–287; M. 262

II The Mexican War, 1846-1848
   1. *Causes*
      Mc. 326; T. 289–290; M. 265–266
   2. *Campaigns*
      Mc. 327–328; T. 290–293; M. 266–268
   3. *Results*
      (a) Territorial
         Mc. 333–334; T. 293; M. 269
      (b) Political
         Mc. 329, 334; T. 298; M. 269

III The Oregon Boundary, 1846
Mc. 322–326; T. 294–296; M. 264–265

D SLAVERY

I The Abolition Movement

1. *Growth of Sentiment Against Slavery*
Mc. 334–336, 343, 352, 357; T. 270, 303, 308; M. 275–276, 283

2. *Rise of Abolitionists*
Mc. 313; T. 267–268

3. *Anti-Abolition Sentiment*
Mc. 313–314; T. 269

4. *The Gag Resolutions*
Mc. 314–315; T. 269

II Expansion of Slave Territory: The Compromise of 1850
Mc. 337–343; T. 297–298, 301–303; M. 269–270, 273–274

III The Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 1854
Mc. 347; T. 309; M. 278–279

IV The Struggle for Kansas, 1854–1861
Mc. 347–352, 357–358; T. 313–314; M. 279–280

V The Dred Scott Decision, 1857
Mc. 355–356; T. 316–318; M. 279–280

VI The Lincoln-Douglas Debates, 1858
Mc. 358–359

VII The Election of Lincoln, 1860; Secession, 1860–1861
Mc. 363, 378–382; T. 323–328; M. 286–290

E INSTITUTIONAL LIFE

I Industrial Conditions

Mc. 285–291, 365–376; H. IV, 41–44; T. 258–264, 281–282, 304–308, 310–312; M. 249–251, 257, 290–292

1. *Means of Transportation and Communication*
   Mc. 285–291, 368–370, 372, 374–375; T. 259–264, 281, 308; M. 237–238, 249–250, 257

2. *Agriculture*
   T. 310

3. *Manufactures*
   Mc. 289, 370–374, 376; T. 259, 263–264, 304; M. 277

4. *Commerce*
   Mc. 374; T. 304

5. *Development of Mineral Resources*
   Mc. 337–338; T. 264, 320; M. 249, 270–272, 284–285

II Social Conditions

Mc. 375; H. IV, 1–74; T. 265–267; M. 239–240

III Government

(To be discussed by the teacher)

IV Religion

Mc. 291–292; T. 282–284; M. 255–257

V Education

T. 265–266; M. 251–252

WESTWARD EXPANSION AND SLAVERY

As has already been stated the characteristics of this period were the westward growth of the nation in population, wealth and territory, and the struggle over the extension of slavery into this western territory. During the preceding period the nation had thrown off its colonial traditions and had become independent of Europe in fact as well as in name. The nation had rid itself of European interference and the great question of slavery and other important domestic questions which had been gradually shaping themselves, now came to the front, and the life of the nation centered around them during this entire period.

POLITICAL METHODS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

I MEANING OF JACKSON'S ELECTION

The election of Jackson marks the beginning of a new epoch in the history of the United States. It marks the advance of democracy far beyond that of the time of Jefferson. To a considerable extent this was due to the development of the West. The new western states represented the rising democracy—the belief that one man is as good as another, irrespective of his wealth or birth. All of the Presidents before Jackson, however, belonged to the wealthy, cultured, and aristocratic class. Jackson was one of the common people. His life had been an almost continuous struggle with poverty and adverse circumstances. He was blunt in manner and speech, headstrong and independent. He typified the rough frontier life of the western states. His election marks the complete triumph of democracy in the United States.

II POLITICAL METHODS

1. *The Spoils System*

The Spoils System consists in the giving of as many offices as possible to those who have helped elect success-

ful candidates. Almost every officer up to the President of the United States has the power of appointing men and women to office. If the candidate elected be a Democrat he usually appoints Democrats to office; if he be a Republican he usually appoints Republicans. It does not matter how faithfully an officer may have performed his duties, his position is usually given to some member of the successful party, and often the new officer is less competent than the one whose place he fills. As a result of this condition of affairs, public business frequently suffers serious injury.

Jackson was responsible for the introduction of the "Spoils System" into the politics of the United States. He claimed that rotation in office was democratic and a good thing; that to the victor belonged the spoils of office —that the successful candidate might fill the offices under his control with personal followers. During the first nine months of his administration, Jackson removed more than one thousand men from office, whereas all of the preceding Presidents together had removed less than one hundred, and then only for good cause, and not on account of their political connections. Since Jackson's administration the officers of both parties have appointed men and women to office because of their political influence. During the last twenty-five years the evil effects of this policy have been greatly lessened by the enaction of national legislation known as the Civil Service Laws. These laws compel the President of the United States to select certain officials by means of examination, and the officers thus selected cannot be removed except for just cause.

2. *The Nominating Convention*

Up to Jackson's second term the candidates for president and vice-president of the United States had always been nominated by a caucus of party leaders in Congress or by state legislatures. The growth of democratic ideas

led the people to demand a more direct control of such nominations, and as a result the candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency in the campaign of 1832 were nominated by national party conventions composed of delegates elected by the people of the various states.

3. *Campaigns*

Up to the beginning of this period comparatively little interest was taken in presidential elections by the people at large. The presidential electors were not nominated by, nor responsible to, any political party, and therefore the people had little partisan interest in their election. Under these circumstances the electors exercised a more or less independent choice. The growth of democracy, however, changed this. After the candidates for president and vice-president came to be nominated by national party conventions, and the presidential electors in the various states came to be nominated by state party conventions, thus being practically pledged to vote for their party nominees, it became necessary to introduce new and active campaign methods in order to rouse the interest of the people and to win popular support for the candidates. Stump-speaking, torch-light processions, and spectacular displays of various kinds, such as would rouse enthusiasm among the people, were a part of this new order of things. This method of conducting a campaign has been continued to the present time, and is used in elections for public officers of all kinds.

4. *Party Organization and Party Platforms*

Strong party organizations or "machines" had already been built up in many of the cities, and during Jackson's administration the organization of national parties as they exist at the present time first came into existence. It was at this time also that party platforms first came into use.

III Political Parties

During Jackson's administration parties became thoroughly re-organized. Jackson's followers were called Democrats and those opposed to his policy, under the leadership of Clay and Webster formed the National Republican party, later calling themselves Whigs.

1. *The Democratic Party*

The Democratic party as organized in Jackson's time has never been broken up, although the leaders and issues have changed, and it has been and is at the present time a powerful party. The Democratic presidents during this period were Jackson, 1829-1837; Van Buren, 1837-1841; Polk, 1845-1849; Pierce, 1853-1857; and Buchanan, 1857-1861. The first issue upon which the Democratic party took a stand was the National Bank which it succeeded in destroying. Later in this period slavery became the predominant issue, and the Democrats as a party were pro-slavery, though in the campaign of 1860 the party split on this issue. The most important work of the Democratic party during this period was the establishment of the Independent Treasury System, the Annexation of Texas, the inauguration and management of the war with Mexico, the reduction of the tariff in 1846 to an almost free-trade basis, and the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854.

2. *The Whig Party*

The general principles on which the Whig party was formed under the leadership of Clay and Webster were broad construction of the Constitution, internal improvements by the aid of the National government and a protective tariff. The Whig party was the one great rival of the Democratic party between 1834 and 1852, and twice succeeded in gaining control of the National government—

in the Harrison-Tyler administration, 1841-1845, and in the Taylor-Fillmore administration, 1849-1853. This party did not succeed in putting into effect any of its most important principles. While the Compromise of 1850 was a Whig measure, it was an unfortunate measure for the party as it alienated many in the North where a large part of the Whigs' strength lay. The Whigs tried to avoid taking a definite stand on the slavery question and it was this attitude that caused their downfall early in the fifties.

3. *The Republican Party*

The development of the slavery issue caused changes in the Democratic party, the breaking up of the Whig party and the rise of several minor parties in the latter part of this period. The various elements of all these parties that were opposed to the extension of slavery united to form a new party which took the name Republican. This party rapidly gained strength in the North, and in 1860 under the leadership of Lincoln first carried the National election.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Political Methods and Political Parties)

I

Compare Jackson with the preceding presidents as to social standing wealth and education. Compare his ideas of democratic or popular government with those of Jefferson. Explain the meaning of Jackson's election. In what way is his election connected with the growth of the West in influence and power?

II

Explain the Spoils System. Why did Jackson introduce this into national politics? Discuss the evil effects of this system. Explain the nature and purpose of the Civil Service Laws. Describe how candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency had been nominated before Jackson's administrations. Discuss the conditions which led to the nominating of candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency by national political conventions. Why had the people at large taken little interest in presidential

elections before this time? Describe the methods of campaigning introduced during this period. What was their object? Were they successful? Describe the building up of party organizations. What is a party platform and when was it first used? What do these various changes in political methods show as to the growth of democracy?

III

Describe the origin and organization of the Democratic party. Discuss its principles. Name the leaders and more important measures of this party during this period.

Describe the organization of the Whig party. Who were its leaders and what were its main principles? Name its more important measures and discuss their effect on the party. What caused the downfall of the Whig party?

Discuss the origin of the Republican party. Who were its leaders? What brought it into prominence?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the meaning of Jackson's election. Discuss the Spoils System, its origin, development and effect. Discuss the origin of nominating conventions and party organizations. Describe the new methods introduced into political campaigns during this period, and discuss their object and effect. Discuss the reorganization of political parties during Jackson's administration. Discuss the leaders, principles and important measures of the Democratic party during this period. Discuss the organization, leaders and measures of the Whig party. Discuss the origin of the Republican party.

FINANCIAL LEGISLATION: THE TARIFF

1. *The Tariff of 1828; Nullification and Secession*

Just before the presidential election of 1828, Congress enacted a tariff law which, because of its high and absurd duties, is known as the "Tariff of Abominations." The tariff was bitterly denounced in the southern states. The North had developed large manufacturing interests which, it was claimed, needed a protective tariff for encouragement. The South had remained entirely agricultural, and the southerners claimed that a high tariff was of no advantage to them, but rather a disadvantage as it tended to raise the price of those things which they had to buy, and did not raise the price of those things which they sold. Protests were made by the legislatures of several of the southern states. Calhoun, speaking for the South, drew up an "Exposition" setting forth the doctrine that the nation was a mere compact of sovereign states; that a state could nullify a law of Congress which it judged to be oppressive and unconstitutional; and that a state had the constitutional right to withdraw from the Union. The legislature of South Carolina, taking this view of the question, passed resolutions nullifying the tariff laws. Jackson, however, threatened to hang as traitors all who forcibly resisted the collection of tariff duties. His firm stand, together with a modification in the tariff, checked the secession movement.

2. *The Compromise Tariff of 1833*

The strong opposition of the South to the "Tariff of Abominations" led to its modification in 1832 and in the following year to the passage of a Compromise tariff law which provided for the gradual reduction of tariff duties during a period of ten years until the low rates imposed by the tariff of 1816 should be reached.

3. *The Walker Tariff, 1846*

The limit provided by the Compromise Tariff was reached in 1843. By that time the idea of free trade had gained strength and this brought about the passage of a new tariff law in 1846 which made still further reduction in the tariff rates, and changed the method of assessing duties.

II Destruction of the National Bank

The National Bank, chartered first in 1791 and re-chartered in 1816 was the repository of government funds and agent for the government in the management of its financial affairs. The fact that this bank was under the general supervision of the national government gave it a certain stability, and the existence of such a bank tended to keep the financial affairs of the nation on a solid basis. Jackson, however, was strongly opposed to this bank, claiming that it had become a political machine and was an "un-American monopoly." Four years before its charter expired he accomplished its destruction by securing the withdrawal of all the national funds from the bank. These funds he had placed in state banks. Through his influence Congress refused in 1836 to renew the bank's charter.

III The Panic of 1837

1. *Era of Speculation*

The distribution of the government deposits among state banks brought about the creation of a large number of state banks which proceeded to issue paper money to an amount far in excess of the gold and silver which they kept on hand for the purpose of redemption. A great deal of speculation was carried on at this time, owing to the opening up of the western country and to the advance in industrial conditions. The great amount of paper money

issued increased this speculation by making it easy for the people to borrow money.

2. *The Specie Circular*

A large part of the money paid for government land was the paper currency of the state banks, and a large part of the national taxes was also paid in the same money. As the state banks had issued a great deal more currency than they had gold and silver to redeem, the people who held this paper money could not exchange all of it or nearly all of it for gold and silver. This caused the people to look upon paper money with suspicion, and as a result a dollar of it became of less value than a dollar of gold or silver. Jackson saw that the government could not continue to accept this paper money for the payment of taxes, because it would result in a loss to the government as it was of less value than gold or silver. He therefore issued an order that all United States taxes must be paid in gold or silver, and that the payments for public land must be made in the same money. This order of Jackson's is known as the Specie Circular because it provided that all payments made to the government by its citizens must be made in specie—that is, in gold or silver. This circular of Jackson's caused the people to become still more suspicious of the paper money issued by the state banks, and caused this money to become of still less value.

3. *Distribution of the Surplus*

By the middle of 1836 all the national debt had been paid and a surplus of over $40,000,000 had accumulated and had been placed in the state banks. Congress passed a bill providing for the distribution of this surplus by installments among the various states as loans. This distribution made necessary the removal of the government deposits from many of the state banks, thus greatly re-

ducing their supply of hard money. This, together with the Specie Circular, caused paper money to become almost worthless.

4. *The Crisis*

The Specie Circular caused men to take their paper money to the banks at once and ask for gold and silver in return. But the banks had not the gold and silver with which to redeem it, for, as has been stated, many of them had issued a far larger quantity of paper money than they could redeem even with the government funds which they had on deposit, and the sudden removal of these government deposits made their condition still worse. As a result they were compelled to close their doors. Paper money, being thus discredited, declined rapidly in value; specie payments were everywhere suspended; hundreds of business firms failed; thousands of men and women lost everything they had possessed; factories were forced to suspend operation; and thus financial panic swept over the nation.

IV The Independent or Sub-Treasury System

President Van Buren, in order to protect the national government, induced Congress to pass what is known as the Independent Treasury Act. By the terms of this act the United States was enabled to erect in the various states such government buildings as should be required in which to deposit the public money of the nation. This system, commonly known as the Sub-Treasury System, still exists and has proven very satisfactory.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Financial Legislation)

I

Explain the tariff of 1828. Compare it with former tariffs as regards protective features. Explain why the North and South did not agree on tariff duties. Discuss in full how the South received the tariff of 1828. Explain the Compromise Tariff of 1833 and discuss the conditions which caused its passage. Discuss the Walker Tariff of 1846.

II

Why was Jackson opposed to the National Bank? Explain the value of this bank. Discuss its destruction.

III

When the National Bank was destroyed what became of the government funds that were deposited in it? How did the destruction of this bank cause the creation of many state banks? Explain what led to the issuing of large sums of paper money. Why was this paper money not so good as gold and silver money? Explain the meaning of speculation. What led to a great deal of speculation about 1837?

What caused a dollar of the paper money issued by the state banks to become of less value than a dollar of gold and silver money? What was the Specie Circular that was issued by Jackson? Why did he issue this circular? How did it affect the value of paper money?

How did the distribution of the surplus money of the government to the various states, affect the state banks and the value of paper money? What is meant by specie payments? Why did the refusal of the state banks to pay out gold and silver for paper money lower still more the value of paper money? Explain how the wild speculation already referred to, and the decreasing value of paper money affected the business of the country and brought on the Financial Crisis of 1837.

IV

Explain the Independent Treasury System. Why was it created? What is its value?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Give a full discussion of the Tariff of 1828 and the Compromise Tariff of 1833. Give a full discussion of the National Bank showing clearly how its destruction led to the Financial Panic of 1837. Discuss the Independent Treasury System.

WESTWARD EXPANSION

I Annexation of Texas, 1845

By the treaty of 1819 the United States ceded to Spain its claim to Texas, and when Mexico became independent of Spain two years later, Texas was included in the new Republic of Mexico. The Mexican government was very liberal in granting tracts of land to settlers in this territory, and Americans in great numbers—especially from the South—took advantage of this policy and settled in Texas. During Jackson's administration offers were made to Mexico for the purchase of Texas but were refused. Meanwhile colonization went on steadily with the definite purpose on the part of the southern leaders of the ultimate annexation of Texas to the United States in order to secure a valuable area for the expansion of slavery. When the American settlers became strong enough they rebelled against Mexico and in a few battles defeated the Mexican army. They then, in 1836, established the Republic of Texas, though Mexico did not recognize its independence. The next step—annexation—was strongly opposed by the northern states because of slavery which existed and would surely expand there. However, in 1845 Texas was admitted to the Union, and thus the slave area was greatly enlarged. The western boundary of this new territory was undecided, and the United States sent troops to enforce its claims, thus virtually forcing war upon Mexico.

II The Mexican War, 1846-1848

1. *Causes*

The causes of this war were the desire on the part of the South for more slave territory which led to the annexation of Texas, and the occupation by United States troops of territory on the Rio Grande claimed by Mexico.

2. *Campaigns*

This war was a series of successes for the American army. There were but two campaigns—one under Taylor on the Rio Grande, and another under Scott, who captured Santa Cruz and then marched upon and captured the City of Mexico.

3. *Results*

(a) Territorial Results

The territorial result of this war was the acquisition by the United States of the territory including California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, New Mexico and part of Colorado. The United States paid Mexico $18,000,000 for this territory.

(b) Political Results

This war re-opened and extended the slavery question, and its political results, therefore, were of the utmost importance. Representative Wilmot of Pennsylvania proposed an amendment known as the "Wilmot Proviso" to a bill pending in Congress. This proviso represented the position of the North regarding slavery in the territory secured from Mexico, and declared that slavery should not exist in any of this territory. It failed to pass Congress, but its discussion throughout the country tended to create a still stronger feeling between the North and the South on the slavery question.

III The Oregon Boundary, 1846

The territory on the Pacific Coast between the forty-second parallel and the parallel of 54° 40′ was called Oregon, and was claimed by both England and the United States. Both nations sent settlers into this territory and held it jointly. The large immigration of Americans into Oregon made the United States anxious to settle the northern boundary defin-

itely and to acquire as much of this territory as possible. In order to make the North willing to admit Texas into the Union, the Democrats took up the acquisition of this entire territory, and made it, together with the annexation of Texas, the issue in the election of 1844. According to their promise, after the annexation of Texas, the Oregon matter was taken up and the present boundary line was agreed upon with England.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Westward Expansion)

I

Explain the conditions which led to the independence of Texas. Explain the conditions which led to its annexation to the United States. Why was the South especially anxious for the annexation of Texas? Why was the North opposed to its annexation?

II

Explain how the United States forced war on Mexico. Why was the South in favor of this war and why was the North opposed to it? Discuss briefly the campaign of Taylor. Discuss briefly the campaign of Scott.

What territory did the United States secure as a result of this war, and afterwards by purchase from Mexico? How did this new territory affect the slavery question? Explain the provisions of Representative Wilmot's proposed amendment — known as the Wilmot Proviso — to a bill pending in Congress regarding the territory secured from Mexico. What effect did the discussion of this amendment have?

III

Explain how the United States secured the territory of Oregon, and how the question between England and the United States regarding this territory was finally settled.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss in full the conditions which led to the War with Mexico. Discuss in full the results of this war.

SLAVERY

I The Abolition Movement

1. *Growth of Sentiment Against Slavery*

Industrial conditions in the North led to the gradual abolition of slavery. Still more slowly a moral sentiment against it had grown up, and by the close of the War of 1812 the two interests—industrial and moral—had brought about abolition of slavery in all the New England and middle states save Delaware, and the prohibition of slavery in the Northwest Territory. In the South, on the other hand, slavery had become still more firmly entrenched in the industrial and social life. The growth of the strength of slavery in the South was shown plainly in the Missouri Compromise. For fourteen years after this Compromise there was a lull in the agitation on the question of slavery, but the abolitionists then brought it forcibly to public attention.

2. *Rise of Abolitionists*

The number of people actually opposed to slavery on moral grounds was very small up to 1831. At that time an abolition paper called "The Liberator" was started by William Lloyd Garrison, and abolition societies were formed throughout the North. The Abolitionists advocated the immediate freeing of the slaves, and circulated pamphlets, papers and magazines throughout the United States, setting forth their doctrines. Although the Abolitionists were very active, the number of people in the North who wished to interfere with slavery in the Southern states, increased very slowly, and was not large before the beginning of the Civil War.

3. *Anti-Abolition Sentiment*

The slave holders were enraged by the activity of the Abolitionists, and were driven into defending slavery on

both moral and constitutional grounds. They insisted that the Abolitionists encouraged slave insurrection, and that they should be suppressed by force. In the North also the feeling against the Abolitionists was strong. Their meetings were broken up by mobs; their printing presses were destroyed; their leaders were threatened with death, this being actually inflicted in one case. As the Abolitionists did not cease their work, but continued even more actively, much of their anti-slavery literature was taken from the mail by mobs, and burned. A bill was even introduced into Congress, with the full approval of President Jackson, to prohibit the sending of such "incendiary publications" through the mail. Though this bill failed of passage after warm debate, it showed the strength of the feeling that prompted it.

4. *The Gag Resolutions*

Anti-slavery agitators sent in large numbers of petitions to Congress concerning slavery. At first these petitions were received but not granted. In 1836, however, the southerners secured in the House of Representatives the passage of a resolution that all petitions relating in any way to slavery should not be received. This was fittingly called the "Gag Resolution." John Quincy Adams, then an old man, and a member of the House of Representatives, labored faithfully against this violation of the right of petition, but the resolution passed after long and angry debates, and remained in force about eight years. This refusal on the part of the House of Representatives to receive petitions from the people was a violation of the Constitution of the United States. It was the violation of a right held especially dear by English-speaking people, because it was one of those rights which had cost them centuries of bloodshed and struggle to secure. The great mass of the northern people had little use for the Abolitionists, but they denounced severely the attempt to inter-

fere with the right of petition. This action therefore tended to create a strong feeling in the North against the attitude of the South on the slavery question, and the action of the few Abolitionists united the South in strong opposition to the North.

II Expansion of Slave Territory: The Compromise of 1850

The addition of the vast territory secured from Mexico to the United States opened up a great area for the expansion of slavery, and the rapid settling of this newly acquired territory brought the whole question of slavery forcibly before the people. The discovery of gold in California in 1848 led to the rapid settlement of that territory and in 1849 the inhabitants of California formed a constitution and applied for admission as a free state. During the discussion that followed, the feeling became so bitter in the North and in the South that threats of disunion were openly made in both sections. Demands were made by both the North and the South. The South demanded the right to take slavery into any territory of the United States and the passage of a strict fugitive slave law. The free states demanded that slavery should not be allowed to go into any new states, or territories, and that it should be abolished in the District of Columbia. The two sections were also diametrically opposed on the question of the admission of California as a free state. Webster and Clay, alarmed as to the outcome, introduced and urged compromise measures. These measures are known as the Compromise of 1850, and the essential points were:

(1) California was to be admitted as a free state, while Utah and New Mexico were to be organized as territories without any provision as to slavery. This practically nullified the Missouri Compromise, for while that measure was passed to settle the slavery question in the Louisiana territory, it was but natural that the parallel of 36° 30′ should be

considered as extending with the acquisition of new territory, as the boundary line between free and slave territory.

(2) The slave trade was to be prohibited in the District of Columbia.

(3 A strict fugitive slave law should be passed by Congress. After violent discussion this compromise was adopted. While, as in the case of the Missouri Compromise, many thought that the slavery question was now settled, the Compromise of 1850 was but a temporary measure, and secured merely a short lull in the slavery agitation.

III The Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 1854

The Fugitive Slave Law, which was part of the Compromise of 1850, was energetically made use of by the slave owners of the South, and this served to create a more intense feeling against slavery in the North. "Uncle Tom's Cabin," though an unjust representation of the slavery system, was a powerful instrument in intensifying this feeling. Under these conditions the Democrats elected Pierce to the Presidency, and secured control of both Houses of Congress. The leaders of both parties were anxious to let the slavery question rest, but Senator Douglas introduced a bill, known as the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, which provided for the organization of Kansas and Nebraska into territories, and which expressly stated that the question of slavery should be left to the people of these territories. As Kansas and Nebraska were both entirely north of 36° 30′, this was a violation of the Missouri Compromise, and the bill was strongly opposed on that account by the Free-soilers. The bill as finally passed, however, provided expressly for the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and thus re-opened the slavery question in all this western territory.

IV Struggle for Kansas, 1854-1861

As soon as the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was passed, a long, severe struggle for Kansas began. Since this territory would

be free or slave as the settlers should decide, both the North and the South hurried in settlers in order to secure a majority of voters. In addition to the actual settlers a large number of men came into Kansas from Missouri temporarily for the specific purpose of carrying the election for slavery by force and fraud. By illegal methods they succeeded in electing a wholly pro-slavery legislature. As the free-state settlers had not been allowed to vote, they formed a government of their own and asked for admission to the Union. The struggle which followed was a bloody one and lasted until 1861, when it was settled by the admission of Kansas to the Union as a free state.

V The Dred Scott Decision, 1857

Dred Scott was a slave taken by his master from Missouri into the free state of Illinois, and then into territory, which by the Missouri Compromise was to be forever free. On his return to Missouri he sued for his freedom on the ground that slavery could not exist on free soil, and therefore his residence in the free North had made him free. The Supreme Court of the United States held that a slave was not a citizen, but property, and therefore had no rights in the courts. This meant that neither the Congress of the United States nor the legislature of a state or territory could interfere with slavery. It meant that slavery could exist in all the northern states and in all the western territory. This decision still further embittered the North.

VI Lincoln-Douglas Debates, 1858

In 1858 Stephen A. Douglas, a leading Democrat, was a candidate for re-election to the United States Senate from the state of Illinois. Abraham Lincoln was the Republican candidate, and a series of debates between the two men was held in the various towns of Illinois during the campaign. In these debates the principles of "squatter sovereignty,"

the Dred Scott decision, and other phases of the expansion of slavery were ably discussed. While the Democratic candidate won the election, the debates served to bring Lincoln into national prominence, and to put the issues on slavery forcibly before the people. Some of the admissions forced from Douglas concerning the control of slavery by Congress, alienated the extreme Southern Democratic party in the following presidential election.

VII Election of Lincoln, 1860

Lincoln's position on the slave question was made plain in the Lincoln-Douglas debates, in which he declared that he was emphatically opposed to the extension of slavery, and that the nation must in time become all slave or all free. The majority of the people in the North agreed with him. While the Republican party disclaimed any intention of interfering with slavery in the states where it existed, the South recognized that the election of Lincoln to the presidency meant that slavery would not be further extended, and therefore considered it necessary, in order to preserve the institution of slavery, to withdraw from the Union. This withdrawal marks the beginning of the Civil War.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Slavery)

I

Discuss the conditions which led to the gradual abolition of slavery in the North. Discuss the conditions which caused it to become still more firmly fastened on the South. How did the Missouri Compromise affect the question of slavery?

Who were the abolitionists and what did they advocate? What can you say about their number? In what way did they advocate their ideas? How were they treated in the North? What did this treatment indicate? What was the attitude of the South toward the Abolitionists? What general result did the work of the Abolitionists have? Explain the Gag Resolutions and Adams's opposition to them. Why were these resolutions wrong and in substance a violation of the Constitution of the United States? What effect did they have on the North?

II

Explain in full the attitude of the South regarding slavery in the territory secured from Mexico. Explain in full the attitude of the North toward slavery in this territory. Describe the feeling between the North and South over this question. Describe in full the Compromise of 1850 which temporarily settled this question. How did this compromise tend to repeal the Missouri Compromise?

III

How was the fugitive slave law, which was a part of the Compromise of 1850, received in the North? What effect did the book called Uncle Tom's Cabin have on the slavery question? What conditions led to the passing of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill? Describe in full the provisions of this bill. How was it received in the North? In what way did this bill re-open the slavery question?

IV

Give a full description of the struggle for Kansas between the slavery and anti-slavery interests. What effect did this struggle have on the feeling between the North and South over the slave question?

V

Explain the Dred Scott Decision. What would have been the effect of this decision on the extension of slavery had it been applied to the entire slavery question? What effect did it have on the North?

VI

Discuss the Lincoln-Douglas Debates. What effect did they have on the slavery question? In what way did they help to make Lincoln the president of the United States?

VII

Explain in full why the election of Lincoln caused the Southern States to secede from the Union.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the conditions which caused the ideas of the South and the North on the slavery question to drift further and further apart. Discuss the relations of the Abolitionists to the Gag Resolutions.

Discuss the causes, provisions and results of the Compromise of 1850. Give a full discussion of the causes, provisions and results of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. Explain the importance of the Dred Scott Decision. Discuss the effect of the Lincoln-Douglas Debates on the slavery question.

INSTITUTIONAL LIFE

During the period from 1828 to 1860 there was a marked development in the United States along institutional lines. This statement, however, applies more especially to the North and West, for in many ways institutional life in the South remained almost stationary. The growth and application of liberal democratic ideas had an important effect on county, state and national government. There was great development in the North and West along industrial lines, and a marked growth in social, religious and educational matters. The South did not have her share in this general advancement, for slavery caused her to remain almost strictly agricultural, and thus her institutional life was becoming more and more unlike that of the rest of the nation. Events were soon to prove that these diverging lines of growth could not be brought together peaceably.

I Industrial Conditions

This period was one of wonderful industrial advancement for the nation as a whole. Foreign immigration, important inventions, improvements in machinery of all kinds, and the marked improvement in transportation and communication with the consequent opening up of the country, were all factors in this industrial advance, and resulted in the building up of great manufacturing and commercial interests, the building of cities, and the development of new industries. White labor was unable to compete with slave labor, consequently not only foreign immigrants passed by the slave holding states and went into the North and Northwest, but a large number of the white laborers whose homes were in the South left their old homes and went North where free labor prevailed. Free labor is necessary for advancement along commercial and manufacturing lines, and hence the South was shut out from developing its immense natural resources along these lines and was kept at almost a stand-

still industrially. The northern free states in 1860 outnumbered the southern slave holding states in white population by about 10,000,000, or more than two to one. Since agriculture tends to scatter population, and manufacturing and commerce tend to centralize it, many cities sprang up in the North but very few in the South.

1. *Means of Transportation and Communication*

The first railroad was built in the first years of this period and by 1860 there were about 30,000 miles of railways in operation in the United States. This enormous growth had a most important effect on industrial conditions. It opened up large areas of new country to trade and greatly cheapened the cost of transportation, thus making many industrial changes. During this period street horse-cars were first put into use in the cities. In 1844 the first telegraph line in the world was constructed and by 1860 telegraph lines were in operation throughout settled parts of the country. The telegraph and the steam railway have done more to do away with sectionalism than any other influence, for they have brought all parts of the country into close contact, and thus have made for the unity of the nation.

2. *Agriculture*

Agriculture continued to be the one great industry of the South. The great demand for cotton by the northern and the English manufacturers caused cotton to become the chief southern product. In the northern and northwestern states large amounts of food-stuffs, particularly wheat and corn were raised and great quantities were exported.

3. *Manufactures*

The manufacturing interests which had their rise in the preceding period increased wonderfully during this period.

The many new inventions, including the reaper, the sewing machine, improvements in agricultural and household implements as well as in machinery for factories, and the extensive use of steam engines of various kinds were a part of, and were stimulating to, the great advance in manufactures. By 1860 the value of the manufacturing industries had reached several thousand millions, and more than a million people were given employment in the factories.

4. *Commerce*

While an important commerce, both domestic and foreign, had been built up in the preceding period, it was now greatly improved and extended. This was due largely to the improved methods of transportation together with the growth of manufactures. By the end of this period American domestic and foreign commerce combined had become greater than that of any other nation.

5. *Development of Mineral Resources*

Great progress was made during this period in the development of the iron industry. This was due largely to the increased demand caused by the building of railroads, bridges, and machinery of all kinds. Pennsylvania was the center of the iron industry. Coal at this time first began to be used as a fuel in place of wood, and this caused the development of coal mines. The mining of gold and silver and other minerals began to be carried on in the western states during the latter part of this period. The real development of the mineral resources of the country, however, took place in the period following the Civil War.

II Social Conditions

Socially, as well as industrially, the South was at a standstill. Class distinctions remained about the same. The new democracy which was leveling all classes in the North and

West exerted but little influence here. Class privileges had largely disappeared in the northern and western sections of the country during the preceding period. It was at this time that great improvements in the conditions of the working classes began to be made in the way of better modes of living, higher wages and shorter hours.

III Government

As has already been stated, the growth and application of liberal democratic ideas during this period, had a marked effect on government in the United States. This is indicated by the election of Jackson, and the origin of national nominating conventions. Especially was this shown in the many new constitutions formed by new and old states during this time, in which the powers of the governors and legislatures were in many cases limited. The judicial department was also brought more under popular control by changes in the method of selecting judges. In many cases where the judicial officers had been appointed for terms lasting during good behavior, they were now elected by the people for comparatively short terms. The town and county governments were made more democratic, particularly in the new western states, by the enlarging of the number of officers elected directly by the people. Municipal government now first became important, for before this time both the number and size of the cities were small. As in the case of the state and county governments, the government of the cities was very democratic.

IV Religion

About 1830 a great wave of religious enthusiasm together with a general reforming spirit swept over the whole nation, and resulted in the rapid growth of church organizations, especially of the Evangelical sects. In the latter part of this period, slavery caused a division in many of these churches and different branches were formed, such as North and South

Methodists. The Mormon church had its rise at this time, and the persecution of its members on account of their doctrines led to its migration into the West where it formed a sort of state of its own.

V Education

This was a period of mental awakening and intellectual advance in many directions. The public school system continued to grow with the country. High schools, academies, and colleges made a distinct advance in all parts of the Union. Thousands of newspapers and magazines were published, and some of our best American authors, including Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, Bryant and Lowell among the poets, and Bancroft, Parkman, Motley and Prescott among the historians, wrote at this time. Henry Ward Beecher, Hawthorne and Wendell Phillips also belonged to this period. It is noticeable that most of this advance along educational lines took place in the non-slave holding states.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Institutional Life)

I

Why did institutional life in the South develop more slowly in many ways during this period than it did in the North and West? How did foreign immigration aid in the development of industrial conditions? What part of the nation did this affect? Why? Why did large cities grow up in the North much more rapidly than in the South? Explain why the South developed very little industrially. Discuss the beginning and the growth of railroads during this period. How did they affect industrial conditions? Describe other improvements in transportations, especially in cities. Describe the origin and development of telegraph lines. How did the telegraph affect industrial conditions? Discuss the agricultural conditions in the South. Describe the agricultural development of the West.

What new inventions aided in the growth of manufactures? Describe the effect of each upon industrial conditions. How did the use of steam

engines affect the growth of manufactures? Compare the amount and value of the manufactures of the United States during this period with those of the preceding period.

What were the chief factors in the growth of commerce during this period? Explain the effect of each.

Describe the development of the iron industry. What was the effect of the use of coal as fuel on industrial conditions? What other mineral resources were opened up during this period? Describe the discovery of gold in California and the rush of settlers to that territory.

II

Why were class distinctions dying out in the North and West while they remained much the same in the South? Why had class distinctions never been very strong in the West? How did the industrial advance aid the improvement in social conditions?

III

During this period, how was the growth of democratic ideas shown in the organization of state governments? How did the growth of democracy affect the judicial department of government? How were town and county governments affected? Why did municipal government now first become important?

IV

Describe the reform movement which swept over the country about 1830. How did slavery affect religious conditions? Discuss the rise of the Mormon Church.

V

What important part of our present public school system was being slowly established during this period? Describe the improvement in the condition of the common schools. Describe the growth of academies and colleges. What can you say of the growth of newspapers and magazines in number and quality? How did they affect the general education of the people? Name some of the noted writers and speakers of this period and tell something of the work of each. How did the improvement in means of transportation and communication aid the growth of general education?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the great industrial development of the North and West. Discuss the industrial conditions of the South. Discuss the effect of improved means of transportation and communication on the industrial and social life of the nation and on the growth of national unity. Discuss social conditions and show how the growth of liberal democratic ideas affected these conditions. Discuss the effect of these democratic ideas on government. Discuss the growth of schools and the great advance along other educational lines.

THE CIVIL WAR

(Each pupil should read carefully all of Hart's Source Reader, No. 4)

Mc. 382–424; H. IV, 75–418; T. 330–388; M. 293–334

I Causes

(To be discussed by the teacher)

II Comparative Resources of the North and South

Mc. 383; T. 332–336

1. *Available Soldiers and Commanders*

   Mc. 422–424; T. 333–335; M. 299

2. *Military Supplies*

   Mc. 423; T. 332–333, 341; M. 298

3. *Financial Resources*

   Mc. 423; T. 360–364; M. 333

4. *Facilities for Transportation*

III Campaigns

1. *Operations of the Army of the Potomac, down to the Time when Grant was Placed in Command of all the Armies of the United States*

   Mc. 388, 392, 402; T. 337–338, 346–348, 354–356; M. 300–302, 310–313, 315—317

2. *The Work of Grant*

   Mc. 388–392, 397–399, 402–406; T. 341–343, 353, 367–371, 382; M. 306–307, 322–325, 331–332

IV The Work of the Navy

1. *Blockade of the Southern Ports*

Mc. 410–412; T. 332–333, 358, 375; M. 302, 303

2. *Commerce Destroyers*

Mc. 412–414; T. 358–359, 375; M. 303–304

3. *The Revolution in Naval Warfare*

Mc. 414–417; T. 343–346; M. 304–305

V Results

(To be discussed by the teacher)

T. 386–388; M. 315, 337

THE CIVIL WAR

I Causes

The real causes of the Civil War were much deeper than the political events which led up to it. As has already been stated, the fundamental causes of this war are to be found in the difference in the topography, climate and soil of the North and South, and in the introduction of slavery into the English colonies. The effect of these conditions in developing two civilizations in the two sections of the country differing in almost every way, and the consequent growth of antagonism between the North and the South, have been rather fully treated in preceding topics. To sum up the conditions leading inevitably to war: The topography, climate and soil of the United States made slavery profitable in the South and unprofitable in the North. This led to the gradual abolition of slavery in the North and to the gradual growth there of of a sentiment against it. In the South, on the other hand, industrial conditions tended to establish slavery permanently, and the whole social and industrial life of the South became firmly moulded around the institution of slavery. The North, resting upon a foundation of free labor, developed its resources and outgrew the South rapidly in population and wealth. The South, because of the nature and effect of slave labor, was falling behind the North in nearly all respects. It had come to regard negro slavery as morally right and something to be protected and encouraged. Long before the outbreak of the Civil War, southern society rested so firmly on slavery that to destroy it meant, in a certain sense, the destruction of southern institutions. It is no wonder, therefore, that the statesmen and slave owners of the South would not for a moment consider the abolition of the slavery system.

By 1860 the North and the South had become two peoples, socially and industrially. The statesmen of the South foresaw that it was only a question of time when the slave states

must leave the Union, or give up slavery, and thus wreck the foundations of southern society. They chose to fight rather than do this. The people of the North, under the same circumstances, would probably have followed a similar course. In other words, there were conditions which made the Civil War inevitable. It was caused by forces beyond the control of the people of either section. It dealt with one of those questions in advancing civilization that must usually be settled by the sword.

II Comparative Resources of the North and South

1. *Available Soldiers and Commanders*

The total population of the United States in 1860 was about 31,000,000. There were not more than 6,000,000 white inhabitants in the states that seceded and not less than 20,000,000 in those states that supported the national government. There were many men of military training in both the North and the South and a few of great military genius, but the ablest military leaders of the North did not secure command of the Federal army until several years after the war began, while the southern armies were commanded by the ablest southern generals from the very first.

2. *Military Supplies*

In the beginning the South had the advantage in this direction on account of the military supplies which had been stored in southern arsenals before the outbreak of hostilities. But as the North tightened the blockade and prevented the bringing in of war material from England, the South, having no manufactures of her own, became severely handicapped because of the scarcity which prevailed. It was not until the outcome of the war had practically been decided that the necessary factories were put into operation for supplying the needs of the southern

armies. The North, being a manufacturing country, with factories already in operation, was able to provide itself with the necessary military supplies.

3. *Financial Resources*

When the blockade stopped the export of their cotton and tobacco, the southerners became reduced to dreadful straits for money. To meet this condition an immense amount of paper money was issued just as had been done by the Continental Congress during the Revolution, and, like the Continental Currency, this Confederate money soon depreciated in value until it became almost worthless. In the North, on account of a much stronger credit, the government was able to sell immense quantities of bonds, and to issue paper money without its depreciation to any very great extent as compared with the currency of the Confederacy. On account of its industrial activity, the North was also able to raise large sums from taxation.

4. *Facilities for Transportation*

Before and during the war a vast network of railroads was being woven between the various northern states. When the crisis came, the North was able to transport soldiers and military supplies from one point to another with comparatively little delay. In the South, on the other hand, railroads were comparatively few and poorly equipped, nor had they the iron for replacing worn-out rails, nor the workmen to repair and keep the lines in working order. There was no lack of agricultural products, but much distress and even threatened starvation was caused both to the soldiers and the other inhabitants because of the poor means of distribution.

III Campaigns

At the beginning of the Civil War, the national government determined to enforce the laws of the United States in

the South, and to prevent the seceding states from leaving the Union. In order to accomplish these purposes, it was decided to blockade the South, capture Richmond, open up the Mississippi, and cut the Confederacy into two sections. In a short time three great armies were organized,–the Army of the Potomac, the Army of the Cumberland, and the Army of the Tennessee. The Army of the Potomac was to defend Washington and capture Richmond. The armies of the Cumberland and the Tennessee were to operate in the West and open up the Mississippi.

1. *Operations of the Army of the Potomac down to the Time when Grant was Placed in Command of all the Armies of the United States.*

After the disastrous battle of Bull Run, the troops around Washington were placed under the command of McClellan, and called the Army of the Potomac. The proposed work of this army was to capture Richmond. Two plans were proposed for reaching Richmond. The authorities at Washington thought that the better way was for the army to proceed directly South. McClellan objected to this, on account of the many rivers in the path, beside which strong fortifications had been erected by the Confederates. He advised that soldiers be landed from transports at Yorktown, Virginia, and from there proceed against Richmond. McClellan's plan prevailed, and in the spring of 1862, with an army of 100,000 men, he was transferred to the vicinity of Yorktown. After several months of hard fighting the campaign ended in failure.

In August, 1862, McClellan was ordered back to defend Washington. A month later, the armies of Lee and McClellan met at Sharpsburg, or Antietam, in western Maryland. Here a great battle was fought, with the result that Lee was compelled to retreat across the Potomac and for the time abandoned his idea of invading the North. As McClellan did not follow Lee with sufficient energy to meet

the approval of the authorities at Washington, he was removed and Burnside was placed in command. In December, 1862, Burnside was defeated at Fredericksburg, and his command was given to General Hooker. In the spring of 1863, Hooker crossed the Rapidan, only to meet with a terrible defeat at the hands of Lee's army. In this battle Stonewall Jackson, one of Lee's ablest generals, was accidentally killed by his own men. Encouraged by his victory over Hooker, Lee again attempted to invade the North. Amid great excitement throughout the North, Hooker was removed, and General George A. Meade given command of the Army of the Potomac. The two armies met at Gettysburg, a village in southeastern Pennsylvania. Here, on the first, second, and third days of July, 1863, was fought one of the greatest battles in the history of the world. Lee's army was defeated, and he never again attempted to carry the war into the enemy's country. Meade did not pursue Lee's shattered forces. The Army of the Potomac fought no other great battles until after Grant assumed command of all the armies of the United States, in March, 1864.

2. *The Work of Grant in the Civil War*

In the early part of 1862, Grant was placed in command of the Union forces at Cairo, Illinois. His first important work was the capture of Fort Donaldson, on the Cumberland River. After three days of fighting, Buckner, as commander of the Confederate forces, asked Grant what terms would be granted him if he should surrender the fort, together with his force of fifteen thousand men. Grant replied, "No terms, except unconditional and immediate surrender, can be accepted." Buckner surrendered under the terms mentioned, and thus Grant won the first great Union victory.

Grant now moved up the Tennessee and fought the battle of Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing. Albert Sidney Johnston, in command of the Confederate army, was killed and

his army forced to retreat. Grant's next important work was the siege and capture of Vicksburg. Vicksburg was a well fortified city on the Mississippi, defended by thirty-seven thousand soldiers under the command of Pemberton. After a siege of seven weeks, the city was compelled to surrender on the fourth day of July, 1863, just one day after the defeat of Lee at Gettysburg. Port Hudson surrendered five days later, and the Federal government had secured control of the Mississippi from Minnesota to the Gulf. These events were the beginning of the end, and the cause of the South from this time onward steadily declined.

Grant next turned his attention to Chattanooga, at which place Bragg had defeated Rosecrans and laid siege to the Union army. Under the direction of Grant, the two brilliant battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge were fought. The Confederates under Bragg were driven southward toward Atlanta.

In March, 1864, Grant was made Commander-in-Chief of all the Union forces. He gave his personal attention to the Army of the Potomac, but directed the movements of all the Federal troops. Sherman was placed in command at Chattanooga. He moved South, captured Atlanta, and then made his famous march to the sea. Early in the spring of 1864, Grant took command of the Army of the Potomac, consisting of about one hundred twenty thousand men. He moved his army southward, crossed the Rappahannock and entered the Wilderness. Here he met Lee's army of sixty thousand men, and a terrible struggle ensued. In one month Grant lost sixty-four thousand soldiers, but he forced Lee to retreat and take up his position within the fortifications of Richmond. Grant laid siege to the city. Sherman's march through the South and Sheridan's raids with his cavalry had cut off a large part of Lee's provisions. Lee evacuated Richmond and attempted to escape, but Grant surrounded his army and forced a sur-

render at Appomattox Court House, a little place about seventy-five miles west of Richmond, April 9, 1865. The surrender of Lee marked the end of the Civil War, although some of the other Southern armies did not surrender until a little later.

IV The Work of the Navy in the Civil War

1. *Blockade of the Southern Ports*

At the beginning of the war the national government, in order to cripple the Confederacy as much as possible, decided upon a complete blockade of the southern ports. Until this blockade was effected, the South could export cotton, sugar, and tobacco, and import arms and other military supplies. To accomplish this blockade, the national government had at first about twenty-four vessels, but it built and equipped a navy with marvelous rapidity, and by the close of the year 1861, had the blockade fairly effective. There were more than three thousand miles of coast for the Union vessels to watch, however, and many vessels, known as blockade-runners, would slip past the Union vessels in the night and succeed in bringing supplies to the Confederates. During the war, more than fifteen hundred of these blockade-runners were taken or destroyed by the Union fleet.

2. *Commerce Destroyers*

While the North was busy in perfecting a blockade of the southern coast, the Confederates were fitting out vessels called Commerce-Destroyers. It was the business of these vessels to watch the great high-ways of commerce and to destroy as many Union merchant ships as possible. The most famous vessels of this kind were the Florida, the Alabama, and the Shenandoah, all of which were fitted out in England. They did an immense amount of damage to the Commerce of the North during the war. In 1872, a

board of arbitration, to which the case had been submitted, decided that England should pay the United States the sum of fifteen million dollars on account of the injury done to American commerce during the war by the Confederate Commerce-Destroyers which had been fitted out in English ports. This settlement is known as the Geneva Award.

3. *The Revolution in Naval Warfare*

In the early part of 1862 the Confederates raised a vessel which had been sunk in the navy yard at Norfolk, Virginia. They covered it with a double plating of iron, and christened it the Virginia. This was the first ironclad warship ever constructed. With this vessel the Confederates destroyed several of the larger Union war vessels at that time lying in Hampton Roads, Virginia. Before it had completed the work of destruction at that port, the Monitor, an ironclad vessel built in New York by John Ericsson, arrived on the scene. A battle took place between the two vessels which was to be the most important single event of the war, proving as it did that a few ironclad vessels could destroy the largest wooden navy afloat. A complete revolution in naval construction now took place, and the great wooden war-vessels of the world were rapidly supplanted by iron-protected fighting-machines.

V Results

The main results of the Civil War were the destruction of slavery, the great industrial development of the South, which the destruction of slavery made possible, the enfranchisement of the negro, and the race problem which this enfranchisement created and which has not yet been settled. Since the war the industrial development of the South has been extremely rapid. Iron and coal fields second to none in the world have been discovered. The production of cotton has vastly increased. Manufacturing establishments of every

kind have been springing into existence. Many large manufacturing establishments are moving their machinery from New England into the South.

Another important result of the war has been the unification of the nation. Sectional feeling has almost vanished because slavery, its cause, has been removed. During the Spanish-American war, ex-Confederate soldiers fought side by side with Federal soldiers who had been their old opponents in the Civil War. Other results of the war were the destruction of more than six billion dollars' worth of property and the loss of about seven hundred thousand of the best men of the nation, the South losing almost as many of these as the North.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(The Civil War)

(In connection with the study of the Civil War the pupil should read carefully Hart's Source Reader, No. 4. It is very interesting, and no other book will give the pupil such a clear knowledge of army life and actual warfare.)

I

Beginning with the difference between the North and the South in topography, climate and soil, review carefully the industrial or fundamental causes of the Civil War. Beginning with the Missouri Compromise review carefully the political events which were the results of these fundamental causes and which were themselves the causes that led directly to this war.

II

Compare the North and the South as regards available soldiers and commanders. Compare them as regards military supplies. Compare them as regards financial resources. Compare them as regards facilities for transportation.

III

Discuss briefly the secession of the southern states and the organization of the government of the Confederacy. Describe the bombardment of Fort Sumpter and its effect on the North and the South. Describe the first battle of Bull Run and its effect on the North and the South. What

three great Union armies were organized and what work was each to accomplish?

(No attempt should be made to study in detail the numerous battles of the Civil War. One or two of the questions given below should be given to the pupils of the class and they should then have time to prepare for a recitation on the same. It might be well to make an intensive study of one or two of the more important battles.)

Describe the operations of the Army of the Potomac to the time when Grant became commander-in-chief of all the armies of the United States. Describe the work of Grant to the time he became Commander-in-Chief. Describe Sherman's march to the sea. Describe the operations of the Army of the Potomac from the time Grant took direct command of it until the surrender of Lee and the end of the war.

IV

Describe the organization of the Union navy during the war. Describe the blockade of the southern ports and explain its importance. Describe the work of the southern commerce-destroyers. Explain how the Civil War caused a revolution in naval warfare.

V

What was the cost of the Civil War in life and property? What effect did it have on slavery? What is meant by the race problem? Explain how it was created by the Civil War. Indicate briefly the wonderful industrial growth of the South since the war, and show how this growth is related to the destruction of slavery. Explain how the Civil War has brought about the unification of the nation — has caused a growth of Union and real friendship between the North and the South.

(The questions given above will serve for compositions and examinations.)

RECONSTRUCTION, DEVELOPMENT AND EXPANSION

A RECONSTRUCTION OF THE SECEDED STATES

I Relation of the Seceded States to the National Government
Mc. 427

II Reconstruction Policy of Lincoln and Johnson
Mc. 427–430; T. 390–393; M. 338

III Reconstruction Policy of Congress

1. *Freedmen's Bureau*
Mc. 429–430; T. 392; M. 338

2. *The Reconstruction Acts*
Mc. 430–431, 439; T. 393–395; M. 339–340

3. *Amendments to the Constitution*

(a) Thirteenth Amendment
Mc. 429; T. 392

(b) Fourteenth Amendment
Mc. 430; T. 393; M. 339

(c) Fifteenth Amendment
Mc. 440–442; T. 402; M. 341

B FINANCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION

I Financial Legislation

1. *Paper Money*
Mc. 420; T. 361–362; M. 355

2. *National Banking System*
Mc. 421; T. 364

3. *Resumption of Specie Payment*
   Mc. 437–438, 445–446; T. 362, 414, 425; M. 356

4. *Gold and Silver Standards*
   Mc. 448–449, 467, 471–472, 485; T. 422–423, 448, 456, 475, 500; M. 349–350, 374, 378, 403

II TARIFF LEGISLATION
   Mc. 419–420, 466, 473, 476; T. 429, 441–442, 446–447, 472

III INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION

1. *Corporations and Trusts*
   Mc. 459–460, 464; M. 366–368

2. *Labor Unions*
   Mc. 460–461; T. 438–439, 473; M. 363–365

3. *Laws Relating to Corporations, Trusts and Labor Unions*
   Mc. 443–444, 465; T. 437–438; M. 359, 365, 370

C FOREIGN RELATIONS

I PURCHASE OF ALASKA, 1867
   Mc. 450–451; T. 397; M. 342

II TREATY OF WASHINGTON, 1871
   Mc. 450; T. 405–407; M. 352

III APPLICATION OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE

1. *The French in Mexico, 1861-1867*
   Mc. 449–450; T. 398–399

2. *The Venezuela Boundary, 1897*
   Mc. 474; T. 477–478; M. 381–382

IV GROWTH OF ARBITRATION

1. *Application of the Principles of Arbitration*
   T. 445, 455, 473; M. 379

2. *The Hague Tribunal, 1899*
   (To be discussed by the teacher)
   M. 403

V. The Spanish-American War, 1898

1. *Causes*
   Mc. 476–477; T. 479–485; M. 388–390

2. *Campaigns*
   (a) Naval Warfare
   Mc. 477–480; T. 486–489; M. 391–393
   (b) The War on Land
   Mc. 479–480; T. 489–492; M. 393–395

3. *Results*
   (a) Territorial
   Mc. 480–483; T. 494–495, 497–500; M. 395–398
   (b) Political
   Mc. 483; T. 495–496; M. 396–398

VI The Isthmian Canal
   (To be discussed by the teacher)
   M. 404

D POLITICAL METHODS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

I Political Methods
T. 417, 427–428, 451; M. 357, 363, 376–377, 381

II Political Parties
Mc. 439, 442–448, 462–470, 475–476, 484–486; T. 395–396, 408–409, 413, 416–419, 434–436, 447, 452–455, 416, 475–477, 501–502

E INSTITUTIONAL LIFE

I Industrial Conditions

1. *The Development of the New West*
   Mc. 433–436, 455–458; T. 415, 444, 461–462; M. 345–347, 381

2. *The New South*
   Mc. 454; T. 432–434, 465; M. 360–362
3. *Means of Transportation and Communication*
   Mc. 434–435, 456; T. 396–397, 399–401, 410, 414, 464; M. 341–342, 344–346
4. *Manufactures*
   Mc. 454, 459; T. 415, 464; M. 351, 375
5. *Agriculture*
   Mc. 457; M. 347, 373, 400
6. *Commerce*
   T. 464, 500; M. 383–384, 405
7. *Foreign Immigration*
   T. 460–461

II Social Conditions
   Mc. 460; T. 439–440, 461

III Education
   T. 466–471; M. 402

1. *The Public Elementary School System*
2. *The Public High School System*
3. *Universities and Colleges*
4. *Special Schools*

RECONSTRUCTION, DEVELOPMENT AND EXPANSION

RECONSTRUCTION OF THE SECEDED STATES

I Relation of the Seceded States to the National Government

When the Civil War closed, the governments of the Confederacy and of the states forming the Confederacy were completely broken up, and the nation was confronted with the serious problem of restoring the South to its proper political and constitutional relations to the national government. In order to restore these states to their proper places it was necessary first to determine into just what relation to the national government they had been placed by secession. Some, among whom were Lincoln and Johnson, held that states could not secede and therefore the southern states had never left the Union; that the attempted secession had merely had the effect of destroying the constitutional privileges of those taking part; that these privileges might be restored through the pardoning power of the President; that as soon as state governments were re-established these states could resume their former places in the Federal government. Others maintained that secession had reduced the southern states to the condition of territories, and that Congress could manage these territories just as it pleased. The view which prevailed ultimately was a medium one,—that the southern states had not lost their statehood, but that they had lost their constitutional rights as states, and that Congress had the power to restore these rights at its discretion.

II Reconstruction Policy of Lincoln and Johnson

Lincoln, acting on his theory regarding the political relation of the seceded states to the national government, issued a proclamation in December, 1863, in which, with some

exceptions, he promised to pardon all those in rebellion who would lay down their arms and take an oath to support the Constitution and all laws or proclamations concerning the emancipation of slaves. He also promised that a new state government might be organized in a seceded state as soon as the number of persons taking the oath in that state was one tenth as large as the number that had voted in 1860, and that such state would then be given full recognition by the national government. Four states reorganized upon this basis. After Lincoln's death the same policy was pursued by Johnson in reconstructing the remaining seceded states, but his work was not allowed to stand by Congress which was determined to have a voice in the reconstruction.

III Reconstruction Policy of Congress

1. *Freedmen's Bureau*

In order to protect and aid the ex-slaves, Congress, early in 1865, passed a measure which provided for the establishment of what was called the Freedmen's Bureau. The severe labor or vagrancy laws passed in many of the southern states in 1865 and 1866, led Congress to continue this bureau to 1870, and to enlarge its duties and powers for the aid and protection of the freedmen.

2. *The Reconstruction Acts*

The refusal of the southern states to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment giving the negro the rights of citizenship led to the passage by Congress of a series of acts limiting the President's power and placing severe restrictions on the southern states. The Reconstruction Act itself provided for the division of the southern states into military districts each under the command of an army officer. This act made it necessary for the seceded states to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution before being re-admitted to the Union, the Thirteenth

Amendment having already been made a part of the Constitution. It also fixed such conditions upon the suffrage in these states that the voting lay almost altogether in the hands of former slaves and immigrants from the North—"carpet baggers" as they were called—who flocked into the South after the war to profit by conditions there. By thus shutting out the southerners from voting, Congress secured in six of the states the formation of conventions that would ratify the proposed amendment.

3. *Amendments to the Constitution*

(a) The Thirteenth Amendment

The Emancipation Proclamation had freed the slaves only in the seceding states. In order to abolish slavery throughout the Union the Thirteenth Amendment was proposed by Congress in January, 1865, and was ratified by the necessary number of states during the year and proclaimed in force in December.

(b) The Fourteenth Amendment

The radical Republicans had gradually gained control of Congress by 1866, and they were strongly opposed to Johnson's lenient reconstruction policy. Congress proposed the Fourteenth Amendment, which made the negro a citizen. The southern states refused to ratify this amendment. Congress then passed a Reconstruction Act which required the seceded states to ratify this amendment before they might send Senators and representatives to Congress. This completely overthrew the reconstruction work done by Johnson. Six of the seceded states soon complied with this reconstructive act. The ratification of the fourteenth amendment by these six states completed the number necessary to make it a part of the constitution. In July, 1868, it was declared to be in full force and effect.

(c) The Fifteenth Amendment

In February, 1869, Congress proposed the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This gave the negro the right to vote. Those states which had refused to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment were now obliged to ratify both the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments before they could re-enter the Union. Having been ratified by a sufficient number of states the Fifteenth Amendment went into effect in March, 1870. With its ratification by the last of the seceding states in 1871, the political reconstruction of the South came to an end.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Reconstruction of the Seceded States)

I

What was the condition of government in the seceded states at the close of the Civil War? Explain the two different views which were held as to the relation of these states to the national government? What is meant by reconstruction?

II

Describe Lincoln and Johnson's policy of reconstruction. Describe the policy of Congress. To what extent did Johnson carry out his policy? What was the attitude of Congress toward his policy? What policy finally prevailed—the policy of Johnson or the policy of Congress?

III

Describe the conditions which led to the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau. Describe the nature and work of this bureau. What was the Tenure of Office Act? Why was it passed? Explain in full the impeachment of President Johnson.

Describe the Reconstruction Act and its effect on the South. Describe the nature of the Thirteenth Amendment. In what way is it related to the Emancipation Proclamation? Describe the Fourteenth Amendment. Why did Congress propose this Amendment? How were the seceded states forced to ratify it? Describe the Fifteenth Amendment. Why was it proposed by Congress? How was it received in the South?

QUESTIONS FOR COMPOSITIONS AND EXAMINATIONS

Discuss the relation of the seceded states to the National Government at the end of the Civil War. Discuss the reconstruction policy of Lincoln and Johnson. Discuss fully the reconstruction policy of Congress and how it was carried out. Discuss the effect of the reconstruction policy of Congress on the people of the South.

FINANCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL LEGISLATION

I Financial Legislation

1. *Paper Money*

The finances of the national government were in a bad state at the beginning of the Civil War, the treasury being entirely empty. Consequently the government was forced to begin borrowing money soon after the war began. The supply of gold was soon exhausted and Congress was forced to issue paper money. About $500,000,000 of this paper money was issued during the war, and it was made a legal currency for all kinds of business, although no one could require the government to exchange gold or silver for it. Besides this paper money, the government issued bonds to the value of more than $1,000,000,000.

2. *National Bank System*

During the Civil War the National bank system of the United States was established. This system is entirely different from the United States Bank destroyed by Jackson. It was established for the purpose of creating a market for the sale of United States bonds, in order that money might be secured to carry on the war. The law which established this system provides that not less than five persons, with a combined capital of not less than $100,000 may establish a national bank. They must invest a sum amounting to at least one third of their capital in United States bonds, and the government will then give them bank notes, not exceeding in value ninety per cent of the par value of these bonds. A tax levied by Congress on the notes of state banks caused most of them to become national banks, and thus the national government was able to sell large quantities of its bonds. The national banking system is now an important feature of the financial system of the United States.

3. *Resumption of Specie Payment*

During the Civil War gold and silver largely disappeared from circulation, and paper money was in use throughout the country. In order to bring the finances of the country back to a gold and silver basis, Congress passed a law in 1864, which provided that the Treasury Department should pay out gold and silver in return for paper money, all the paper money thus secured to be destroyed. Within four years the amount of paper money in circulation was reduced from nearly $500,000,000 to $356,000,000. The destruction of so much paper currency caused a scarcity of money, and in response to the demand of the people, specie payment was discontinued in 1868. In 1879 it was resumed and the finances of the country have ever since been on a hard money basis.

4. *Gold and Silver Standards*

Standard money is money that must be accepted in payment for all debts, and the material out of which this money is made must be coined by the United States mints practically free of charge for any one who takes the material to the mint and complies with the regulations. Until 1873 both gold and silver were standard moneys in the United States,—that is, any one possessing either gold or silver could have it coined into money. In 1873 the coinage of silver as a standard circulating medium was partially discontinued, and in 1876 the coinage of silver as a standard money was abolished. In 1878 it was again made a standard money, but the amount the government could coin during each year was limited. The law providing for this is called the Bland Silver Bill. In 1890 Congress passed what is known as the Sherman Act. This law directed the Secretary of the Treasury to buy about $15,000,000 worth of silver each year. After 1891 it was provided that the silver bought need not be coined, but silver certificates for 4,500,000 ounces of silver must be issued each

month and these redeemed in gold and silver. In order to protect the gold reserve in the United States Treasury, the Sherman Act was repealed in Cleveland's second administration. In the spring of 1900 Congress passed a law which declared, in substance, that the gold standard would be maintained in the United States.

II Tariff Legislation

Tariff, as used in national legislation, is a tax levied on goods brought into the United States from another country. One of the main objects of a tariff is to obtain the money required for meeting the expenses of government and the payment of the national debt. Another object is to protect home industries. Many believe that tariff duties should be so levied as to protect the manufacturing and agricultural interests of the country. This means that all goods which can be produced in the United States should be required to pay an import duty so as to secure a better home market for home products and thus increase home production. On the other hand many believe that a protective tariff raises the price of goods and products and benefits only those who produce the articles on which an import duty is levied. These people therefore believe that a tariff should be levied for the purpose of revenue only, and that tariff duties should be levied only on such articles as are used by the wealthier classes. The majority of the people of the United States, however, believe that, in addition to raising a revenue for the expenses of the government one of the main objects of tariff duties should be the protection of home industries. During the war high tariff rates were levied in order to raise money to meet the expenses of the war, and in order to protect the manufacturing interests which were being heavily taxed. Since the war the tariff has remained strongly protective in nature. The Wilson Bill, passed during Cleveland's second administration, modified the tariff in many respects, but it retained a large number of protective features. During McKinley's adminis-

tration, a tariff with full protective features was restored, and is still in operation. The principle of a protective tariff is becoming more and more an accepted part of the economic policy of the United States.

III Industrial Legislation

1. *Corporations and Trusts*

A corporation is an organization recognized by law, and empowered to transact a certain kind of business, as though it were one person. The wonderful industrial progress of the United States has made it possible for men to amass large fortunes. These fortunes, singly or in combinations, have been used for the purpose of building long railroad lines, developing large mining interests, and carrying on other great enterprises. They have often taken advantage of the great power which they possess in order to crush out smaller enterprises having less financial backing. A vast corporation often takes the place of many individual business concerns. For example, the Western Union Telegraph Company was organized in 1886 out of forty small telegraph companies. Many lines of railroads have been combined into a few trunk lines. The Standard Oil Company has taken the place of any number of smaller oil companies. When great corporations were first organized they were brought into sharp competition with other corporations engaged in the same lines of business, and prices were kept at a low mark. The people received the benefit of this competition. The corporations soon learned that it was to their advantage to form combinations, thus avoiding competition with one another. Vast combines or trusts have now been formed in almost every line of business.

2. *Labor Unions*

In order to protect themselves against the combinations of capital referred to above, and to better their condition,

many of the laboring people of the country have combined at different times and under various names. Most of these labor unions have united and formed state federations, and the state federations are represented in what is known as the American Federation of Labor, which exercises general control over nearly all the labor unions in the United States. By their combined efforts, the labor unions have shortened the hours of labor, raised wages and accomplished many other things which, taken together with the natural advantages and great industrial development of the United States, have raised the condition of the American laborer above that of any other nation in the world.

3. *Laws Relating to Corporations, Trusts and Labor Unions*

The aggressive, and sometimes illegal methods of great corporations and trusts, and the recent unjust and un-American demands of some labor unions, constitute one of the greatest problems now before the American people for solution. Corporations and trusts and labor unions are no doubt beneficial and necessary to our industrial development, but it has become quite evident during the last few years that the great mass of the American people must see to it that they do not infringe upon, nor interfere with, the great principles of personal freedom and personal initiative in business and labor, which have made possible the great growth of the American nation. Already laws having this object in view have been passed by both the national and state legislatures. Among such laws is that known as the Interstate Commerce Act passed by Congress in 1887. This law provides for the supervision of railroads by a national commission whose duty it is to prevent unfair discrimination between shippers, and to prevent combinations formed for the purpose of destroying competition and raising prices. Among the laws passed with special reference to labor, are the Contract Labor Law, which prohibits any person in the United States from importing

foreign laborers under contract, laws restricting Chinese immigration, and laws making eight hours a full day's labor in certain kinds of government employment. In 1903 Congress created the new executive department of Commerce and Labor. Many states have passed laws regulating railway fares, and restricting the powers and defining the duties of corporations and trusts.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATION

(Financial Legislation)

I

What was the condition of the finances of the National Government at the beginning of the Civil War? Why did the government find it necessary to issue paper money? What is a national bond? Why did the government issue bonds during the war?

Describe the National Bank System. Why was it created? What action did Congress take against the state banks?

What is specie payment? When the paper money was first issued, could it be exchanged for gold and silver money? What effect did this have on the use of gold and silver money in business affairs? Explain what is meant by the resumption of specie payment in 1864. What effect did this have on the amount of paper money in circulation? After 1864 when and for what reason was specie payment discontinued and when was it resumed?

Explain fully what is meant by standard money. Up to 1873 what was standard money in the United States? Explain carefully how silver since 1873 has gradually lost its position as a full standard money.

II

Explain carefully the two main objects for which tariff duties are levied. Explain the two different views regarding the value of the protective principle of the tariff. Beginning with the Civil War, trace and explain the tariff legislation of the Nation.

III

What is a corporation? What is a trust? Give examples of each. Explain how the wonderful industrial development of the United States since the Civil War has made possible the rapid growth of corporations and trusts. In what way are they of great value to the nation? In what way are they an injury?

What is a labor union? For what purpose are they organized? Describe how they are organized into state federations and into a national

federation. In what way do labor unions and labor federations differ from corporations and trusts? In what way are labor unions of great value to laboring people and to the industrial development of the United States? In what way are they an injury to the nation?

Are corporations, trusts and labor unions beneficial and necessary to the industrial development of the nation? Explain why they constitute one of the greatest problems now before the American people, and why the great mass of the people should give them most careful consideration.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the issuing of unredeemable paper money during the Civil War and the resumption of specie payment. Discuss the issuing of bonds during the Civil War and the establishment of the National Bank System. Discuss gold and silver standards with especial reference to the uses of silver as a standard money since the Civil War. Beginning with the year 1860, give a careful discussion of the tariff legislation of the United States. Discuss corporations, trusts and labor unions.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

I Purchase of Alaska, 1867

In October of 1867 the United States purchased Alaska, a territory containing 590,000 square miles, from Russia for about $7,000,000. At that time Alaska was thought to be valuable only for its furs, fisheries and lumber, but valuable mineral deposits have since been opened there, and it no doubt possesses other valuable resources.

II Treaty of Washington, 1871

The treaty of Washington provided for the settlement by arbitration of the questions in dispute between the United States and Great Britain. These questions were: The disputed boundary line between British Columbia and the territory of Washington, the rights of American fishermen in Canadian waters, and the claim of the United States for damages for the destruction of American commerce during the Civil War by vessels fitted out in British ports. This last mentioned is known as the "Alabama Claims" and was settled by the board of arbitration which awarded $15,500,000 damages to the United States. This treaty is important, because it is the first notable example of the voluntary arbitration by two great nations of questions in dispute.

III Application of the Monroe Doctrine

1. *The French in Mexico, 1861-1867*

During the Civil War a French Army had been sent into Mexico, and a French Empire had been established with Maximilian, an Austrian Archduke, as Emperor. Soon after the close of the war, the Secretary of State intimated to the French government that the United States was now in a position to enforce the principles of the Monroe Doctrine, and the French soldiers were at once removed from Mexico.

2. *The Venezuelan Boundary, 1897*

Great Britain and Venezuela could not agree upon the boundary between their territory in South America. Venezuela appealed to the United States and the United States asked Great Britain to submit the question to arbitration in accordance with the Monroe Doctrine. Great Britain claimed that the world had outgrown that doctrine. On receiving a note from the British government containing these views, Cleveland, with the authority of Congress, appointed a commission to determine the boundary in dispute. In a proclamation to Congress he stated that when the boundary line had been determined by the commission, the United States would fight if necessary in order to maintain it. England then consented to have the matter submitted to arbitration. The firm stand of Cleveland served as a notice to the world that the United States would strictly enforce the Monroe Doctrine.

IV Growth of Arbitration

1. *Application of the Principles of Arbitration*

The principle of arbitration has for some time been employed in the settling of domestic difficulties in the United States, such as disputes between laborers and their employers. This has been particularly effective in the settlement of great strikes which have threatened the various industries of the nation, and even in some cases the welfare of the whole nation. An instance of this latter kind may be found in the great coal strike of 1902–1903 in the Pennsylvania coal fields, which was settled by arbitration after causing great injury to industries and untold suffering among the people of the nation. As has been stated, the settlement of disputes between Great Britain and the United States by a board consisting of arbitrators appointed by outside nations was the first notable application of arbitration to international affairs. It marked a distinct

advance in the settlement of international questions and has since become recognized as the best way in which to deal with many international difficulties.

2. *The Hague Tribunal, 1899*

In 1899, at the suggestion of the Czar of Russia, delegates from twenty-six nations met at the Hague in Holland for the purpose of providing for a permanent Court of Arbitration for the settlement of difficulties between nations without their going to war. The work of this conference met with the heartiest approval of the various nations of the world, and as a result the Hague Tribunal of Peace has been established. It is the object of this tribunal to settle all such questions arising between nations as may be submitted to it justly and fairly, and to thus promote the peace and welfare of the world. The United States has been among the foremost in urging the principles of arbitration.

V The Spanish-American War, 1898

1. *Causes*

The remote cause of this war was the Spanish mis-government of her West Indian possessions, which caused continual rebellion among the inhabitants and endangered American property interests there. Moreover the American people felt a great deal of sympathy for the people who were struggling to establish a republican government, and against whom a cruel and bloody warfare was being waged to crush this rebellion. The immediate cause of the war was the destruction of the American battleship Maine, in the harbor of Havana, with the loss of more than two hundred and fifty sailors. It has not yet been proven, but it was generally believed that the destruction of the vessel was due to the Spaniards. At any rate it served to arouse the people of the United States and led directly to the war for the independence of Cuba.

2. *Campaigns*

(a) Naval Warfare

The American navy decided the success of the United States in this war. Two naval battles were fought, one off the southern coast of Cuba, and one in the Philippine Islands which belonged to Spain, and where a part of the Spanish navy was stationed. In these two battles the Spanish navy was practically destroyed, without the loss to the American forces of a single ship, and with the loss of but one man. With her navy destroyed, Spain could not hope to make any effective resistance on the land, either in the Philippines or in the West Indies.

(b) The War on Land

The chief land campaign of the war had for its object the capture of Santiago. Two vigorous battles were fought at El Caney and San Juan before the city was captured by the Americans. Another successful campaign was begun at Porto Rico, but was soon stopped by the declaration of peace. A third army was sent to the Philippines, where it aided in the capture of the chief city, Manila.

3. *Results*

The war itself was of comparatively little importance, but its results are of great importance to the United States. As an immediate result Cuba became independent of Spain and the United States gained considerable territory in the management of which she has entered upon some new policies.

(a) Territorial Results

By the treaty of peace after the close of the war the United States acquired the Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico and other Spanish West Indian Islands, giving Spain in return $20,000,000. This war had shown

the military value of the Hawaiian Islands, and they were also annexed to the United States in 1898. The annexation of Hawaii had been proposed to the United States before, and would very likely have taken place in any event, but the war hastened it.

(b) Political Results

The political effect of this war is far reaching and may vitally affect the policy of the United States. If these possessions are treated as colonies, the United States may be compelled to mix in Asiatic and European affairs, thus to a certain extent abandoning the principle of neutrality established by Washington, to which the United States has always strictly adhered. Previous to the acquisition of this territory all of the country acquired by the United States had been practically unsettled, leaving for the American people the development of its resources and its preparation for becoming an integral part of the Union. Most of the territory acquired from Spain during the recent war is thickly populated, and if it be held as colonial possessions, and the constitution of the United States be not permitted to extend over it, a new principle will have entered into the American government. These questions belong to the future, and their solution will make some of the most important work of American statesmen.

IV The Isthmian Canal

As early as 1850 the building of a ship canal through some part of Central America was discussed, and a treaty made between England and America regarding the neutrality of such canal when built. From time to time treaties were made concerning a canal to be built through Central America, but nothing was accomplished. The Spanish-American war emphasized the value of such a canal, and in 1901 the matter was taken up again. A second treaty was then made with Eng-

land, guaranteeing the neutrality of the proposed canal, but giving the United States the right of ownership and defense. The construction of the canal was then taken up by Congress. Two routes were proposed, one by way of Nicaragua and the other by way of Panama. A large sum was appropriated for the construction of the canal and negotiations were at once begun with Colombia for a canal by way of Panama. Upon the rejection by Colombia of the treaty giving the United States the power to construct the canal, Panama revolted and established a republic which was at once recognized by the United States and the other leading nations. The United States succeeded in making very favorable arrangements with the government of Panama and the treaty arranged by representatives of the United States and Panama was promptly ratified by both governments in 1904, and work on the canal was at once begun.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Foreign Relations)

I

How did the United States secure Alaska? Describe this territory. Of what value is it to the United States?

II

Describe the conditions which led to the making of the Treaty of Washington. What were the provisions of the treaty? Explain the importance of this treaty.

III

Describe the conditions in Mexico during the Civil War. Explain how the principles of the Monroe Doctrine applied to these conditions. Discuss the Venezuelan boundary dispute and the application of the Monroe Doctrine to this case. How did the Monroe Doctrine apply to the recent blockade of the ports of Venezuela?

IV

(The teacher should consult magazines covering this period for material on this topic. The *American Review of Reviews* is especially valuable.) What is meant by arbitration? Describe the appointing of a board of arbitration. Give examples of its use in settling difficulties between

laborers and their employers in the United States. Of what value is arbitration in cases of this kind? Give instances of the application of the principle of arbitration to international affairs affecting the United States. Discuss the establishment of The Hague Peace Tribunal. Discuss its importance and give instances of disputes which it has adjusted.

V

Discuss the causes of the Spanish-American War. Describe the leading naval battles of this war, and discuss their effect. Describe the campaign for the capture of Santiago. (Each pupil should draw a map illustrating the important battles of this war.)

Discuss the terms of the treaty of peace. Tell all you can about the character and conditions of the territory acquired by the United States through this treaty. How did the Spanish-American War affect the annexation of Hawaii? (Each pupil should draw a map showing the territorial acquisitions of the United States as a result of this war.) How is the territory acquired by this war governed at the present time? Compare the government of Hawaii with that of the Philippine Islands. Compare the conditions in the territory acquired from Spain with those in the territory previously acquired by the United States. Why was a different policy adopted in the government of this new territory from that followed in the organization and government of the other territory of the United States? In what way, if in any, do the results of the Spanish-American War tend to violate the principle of American neutrality established by Washington?

VI

Tell all you can of the history of the Panama Canal. (Each pupil should draw a map showing the two routes proposed.) Discuss the importance of an isthmian canal.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the application of the principles of the Monroe Doctrine during this period. Discuss the growth of arbitration in domestic and international affairs. Discuss the Spanish-American War and its territorial results. Discuss the ways in which the form of government adopted by Congress for the territory secured from Spain tends to introduce new principles into the government of the United States. How may the results of the Spanish-American War modify the principle of American Neutrality in European Affairs? Discuss the history and importance of the isthmian canal.

POLITICAL METHODS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

I Political Methods

The chief change in political methods since the Civil War is the introduction of the Australian ballot system and its adoption throughout the Union. This removed opportunity for fraud and protected the secrecy of the ballot. It was a most important reform. A marked advance in the political methods is shown by the enaction of Civil Service Laws by which the appointment of many federal officers must be made on the basis of ability and not on the basis of political service. In 1871 Congress passed a Civil Service Reform Act. This law gave the President the power of selecting a commission which should devise a better plan for the appointment of men to all offices under his control. Grant was anxious to enforce this law and better the Civil Service, but the members of Congress, desiring the offices for political purposes, refused to vote money to carry out the reform. As a result, it proved of little value. In 1883, Congress passed the "Pendleton Civil Service Act." This law gave the President the power of making appointments to office by means of examination, and officers thus appointed could not be removed so long as they did their work well. President Arthur placed a large number of offices under this civil service regulation, and President Cleveland increased the number. Many of the best citizens of the United States hope that this law marks the beginning of the downfall of the Spoils System.

II Political Parties

During most of the time since the Civil War, the Republican party has had control of the national government, but the Democratic party has always been strong enough to exert a powerful influence, and has twice succeeded in electing a president. Of the eleven presidents since 1864, Lincoln, Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Harrison, McKinley and Roosevelt were Republicans, while Cleveland

served two terms as a Democratic president. Immediately after the close of the war the chief political issue was the reconstruction of the seceded states. Since then the two main political issues between the Democratic and Republican parties have been the money question and the tariff question, although, of course, there have been many minor issues. The many industrial and social questions have given rise to a number of other political parties. Among these are the Populist or People's party, the Prohibition party, and the Socialist party.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS

(Political Methods and Political Parties)

I

Describe the Australian ballot system. When and why was it adopted in the United States? Describe the provisions of each Civil Service Law passed by Congress since the Civil War. Discuss in full the importance of these laws and the conditions which led to their passage.

II

Discuss the leaders and principles of the Republican party since the Civil War. Discuss the leaders and principles of the Democratic party during this period. Describe the leading issues between these two parties during this period. Discuss the conditions causing the formation of other parties.

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the Civil Service Laws and their importance. Discuss the leading political issues since the Civil War, and compare the positions of the Democratic and Republican parties on these issues.

INSTITUTIONAL LIFE

The development of the institutional life of the United States since the Civil war has been remarkable, particularly along industrial lines. There has been very little change in the conditions of Government and Religion, except the natural development along lines laid down in the previous periods. Socially some new factors have entered into national life, and educationally the advance of the nation has been marvelous.

I Industrial Conditions

The industrial progress of the United States since the Civil war has not been equalled in any other period of the world's history. This industrial development has affected the entire institutional life of the nation, and has made the United States the wealthiest nation in the world.

1. *The Development of the New West*

The discovery of gold and silver and other mineral mines in the Rocky Mountains and in the country lying west of these mountains early caused a great stream of immigration to start westward. At first the covered wagon was the principal means of transportation. Later came the overland stage-coach, and later still railroads reaching to the Pacific. These railways have had more influence on the development of the West than any other single factor. The recent discoveries of immense oil fields in California promise to make the Pacific Coast a more important manufacturing region, by supplying a cheap fuel, the lack of which has been a serious drawback to manufacturing interests on the coast. The utilization of the mountain streams by converting their force into electric power is also furnishing cheap motive power. Another important factor in the development of the West has been the extensive use of irrigation by which arid lands have been made fertile, and homes for thousands of settlers have

been created. The fact that the national government has decided to assist in reclaiming western lands by irrigation should result in greatly increasing the productive farming area of the West.

2. *The New South*

The abolition of slavery produced a revolution in the labor system of the South. Before the War, as has been stated, slavery had been the corner stone of southern society. With the emancipation of the slaves this society passed away, and on its ruins rose a "New South," having free labor as its foundation. The South has gained greatly by this change. The production of cotton has more than doubled since 1860. At that time the capital invested in southern manufacturing industries was so small as to scarcely require mentioning. There is now invested in machine-shops, mills and work-shops more than $50,000,000 of capital. Thousands of miles of railroads have been built. Coal and iron mines have been opened up. Atlanta, Chattanooga, New Orleans, Augusta, Birmingham, and other Southern cities now have manufacturing establishments which rival those of the North and West.

3. *Means of Transportation and Communication*

The development of the United States in these respects during the last forty years is remarkable. In 1860 there were 30,000 miles of railroads; at the present time there are over 200,000 miles and new roads are constantly being built. In 1860 there were no railways west of the Missouri river. The first line reaching the Pacific was completed in 1869 and four other transcontinental lines have since been built, and, together with their branches, have penetrated every part of the West. The railroads have been a most important agency in national industrial and social development. Realizing this, the government has done much to encourage the building of railroads. For this purpose it has given to railroad companies more than 200,000,000 acres of land and $60,000,000. In

addition to railroads, street-car systems are in use in all the cities and even in the larger towns and in thickly populated suburban districts. The use of electricity as a motive power has caused great improvements in transportation. Great steamship lines have been organized, and transportation by water much improved. The successful laying of oceanic cables has been accomplished during this last period, and now nearly all parts of the civilized world are in close communication. The telephone, too, has been invented and perfected within the last thirty years. The effect of this great advance in means of transportation and communication can hardly be over-estimated. It has aided the industrial growth of the nation by making it possible to develop the great natural resources of the country, especially of the interior part. It has also had a profound effect on the industrial development of the country by creating an immense home market for the products of all parts of the nation. If the railroads did not exist, a large share of the products of many parts of the United States would never find a market. The improved means of transportation and communication have also exerted a great and beneficial influence on the nation socially by bringing the people into closer touch, doing away with sectionalism, and thus promoting the growth of a true national life.

4. *Manufactures*

In 1860 the manufactured products of the United States were valued at $4,000,000,000. The estimated annual value of the present output from its factories is over $12,000,000,000, being greater than that of any other country in the world. The growth of the iron and steel industries is most remarkable. In 1860 England led the world in the production of iron and steel. Now the United States is far in advance of that country. This is but a single instance of the rapid growth of manufacturing interests in the United States. Over 5,000,000 people are employed in her factories. Nearly

all of her large cities are hives of industrial enterprise, and the products of her factories are carried to the markets of every country in the world.

5. *Agriculture*

Agriculture continues to be one of the leading industries. The developing of the Middle West and the Pacific Coast has placed the United States in the front rank of agricultural nations. The building of railroads and the extension of irrigation have been important factors in this agricultural development. Stock raising has also become an important industry in the West. Immense amounts of food stuffs are raised and exported by the United States and they form one of the chief sources of the wealth of the country. The United States furnishes 80 per cent of all the cotton raised in the world, and its annual exports of provisions, bread stuffs and cotton have a value of about $800,000,000.

6. *Commerce*

The growth of commerce has kept pace with that of manufactures. On both the Atlantic and Pacific Coast are located great ship-building concerns, where not only American vessels, but also vessels of all kinds for foreign nations are built. The products of American factories and farms are carried to all parts of the world in American vessels. The total foreign commerce of the United States exceeds that of any other nation, and her domestic commerce is several times greater than that of any other nation.

7. *Foreign Immigration*

The immense foreign immigration since the Civil War has had a most important effect on industrial conditions in the United States. Without the labor of these immigrants many of the great industries could not have been built up. Their labor has been valuable particularly in the building of rail-

roads and in the working of mines. Of late years, however, the immigrants have been of a lower class, and have come in such numbers that many believe that the continued practically unlimited admission of immigrants is becoming a serious menace to our institutions, and that Congress should pass stringent laws concerning immigration.

II Social Conditions

At the present time (1904) the population of the United States, not including Alaska and the territory secured as a result of the Spanish-American War, is about 80,000,000, or about two and a half times what it was at the close of the Civil War. There have been many changes in the social conditions during this time. Some of these changes have been for the better and some for the worse. The more important factors that have tended to change and modify the social conditions of the nation during this period are the negro question, the immense foreign immigration, the great industrial advance with the resulting creation of vast private fortunes, and the improvement in means of transportation and communication. The last factor has done more than anything else to break down localism in manners and customs, and to unify the social life of the nation. The coming to the United States of so many of the worst classes of Europe is having an undesirable effect on social conditions, because these immigrants congregate in large cities and do not readily assimilate American customs and ideals. The negro question which was created by the emancipation and enfranchisement of the negroes, more vitally concerns the South. The solution of this question rests largely with the people of the South, and in this work they deserve the sympathy and cooperation of every citizen of the nation. Industrial education, such as is being carried on under the direction of Booker T. Washington, at the Tuskeegee Institute in Alabama, promises to be the most important factor in the solution of this problem. The great industrial development of the nation

has tended, on the whole, to advance social conditions, because it has enabled the great mass of the people to have better homes, better clothes, better food, and more luxuries, and to enjoy more fully the pleasures of social life. On the other hand the tendency of large private fortunes is to create class distinctions based on wealth. While there are some undesirable tendencies and conditions in the social life of the nation, the great improvement along industrial lines has caused and is causing a steady improvement in social conditions.

III Education

In no respect has the advance of the United States since the Civil War been more marked than in the matter of education, and especially is this true in the South. This great advance in education throughout the United States is seen in the present condition of the public school system and in numerous institutions of higher education; in the number and quality of newspapers and magazines; in institutes, conventions and clubs of various kinds, which have for their object mutual improvement; and in the number of museums, libraries and art galleries.

1. *The Public Elementary School System*

The free elementary public school system as it exists in the United States to-day has been built up and developed almost entirely since the Civil War. There were public schools before the Civil War and they were doing an excellent work, but there were not many free public schools before that time and in efficiency and equipment those schools were far inferior to those of to-day. Just before the Civil War the people were beginning to demand free public schools as a right, and this soon resulted in placing the general management of the school system under the control of state school officials and in the levying of state school taxes. This was a new principle in education, for before, such matters had been left almost entirely in the hands of city and county officials. At

the present time the constitutions of nearly all the States make ample provision for the maintenance of the free public schools. Nearly all of the states west of the Alleghany mountains, under the direction of Congress, set aside, at the time of their organization, certain lands in each township for the support of public schools. In most cases these lands have been sold, and the money obtained from their sale constitutes a school fund, the interest on which is used for school purposes. When additional money is needed it is raised by direct local and state taxation.

Although each state has its own school system, and there is a wide difference as to the length of school terms, qualifications and salaries of teachers, courses of study and similar matters, there are strong forces at work which tend to make the schools uniform throughout the United States. Among these forces are state and national educational associations, and the National Bureau of Education, the latter being under the direct control of the national government.

2. *The Public High School System*

The advance in high school education during this period, has been as great and as important as the improvement in the elementary schools. The whole public high school system has been developed largely within the last forty years, the number of high schools doubling within the last ten years. The high schools have been aptly termed the colleges of the common people. Their service in strengthening the work of the elementary schools and in giving the young people of all classes an opportunity for a higher education, can hardly be overestimated. Many of the public high schools in the United States to-day offer courses of study of as high grade as did Yale and Harvard a hundred years ago.

3. *Universities and Colleges*

The growth of the state universities is one of the most notable features of the advance in education. Nearly every

state in the Union has established an institution of this kind, supported by taxation, grants of public land, and appropriations by the legislatures. Several great institutions of learning and numerous smaller colleges have been established throughout the United States by private individuals. These institutions of higher education are having an important effect on American character and ideals.

4. *Special Schools*

There have been established within the United States during this period many special schools, among which are normal schools for the training of teachers; medical schools for the training of physicians and surgeons; law schools for the training of lawyers; and many other technical schools for the training of men and women along professional and technical lines.

QUESTIONS FOR CLASS RECITATIONS
(Institutional Life)

I

What has been the nature of the industrial development of the United States since the Civil War? What effect has the discovery of gold, silver and other metals had on the development of the New West? Discuss fully the effect of the railroad and telegraph on this development. What has been the effect of irrigation, the use of electricity for motive power, and the recent discovery of vast quantities of oil which is being used as a cheap fuel? Discuss the general growth of the New West.

What is meant by the New South? Explain fully how the destruction of slavery made possible the growth of the New South. Describe fully the industrial development of the South since the Civil War.

Describe fully the great improvement in the means of transportation and communication since 1865. Explain fully how this great improvement has affected the industrial and social conditions of the nation.

Discuss the growth of manufactures since 1860. Describe the growth of agriculture. Discuss the growth of commerce. Discuss foreign immigration. Why should Congress give this question serious consideration?

II

In what way has the negro question become an important factor in social conditions? How is foreign immigration related to social condi-

tions? Explain how the great industrial development of the nation since the Civil War has affected social conditions.

III

In what way do the states assist in public education? Discuss how the principle of state control of education has developed, and how the national government has assisted in its growth. Discuss the growth of public elementary education since 1865. Discuss the growth of public high school education. How does the advance of the South in educational matters since the Civil War compare with that of the rest of the nation? To what is this great advance due? What forces are tending to unify the educationa work in the United States?

In what way do the states assist higher education? Discuss the great growth of colleges and universities since 1865. What is the value of these institutions? Name several kinds of special or technical schools. Discuss the growth of these schools since 1865. What is the value of these schools?

Questions for Compositions and Examinations

Discuss the industrial development of the United States since the Civil War. Discuss the changes in social conditions. Discuss the growth and improvement along educational lines.

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